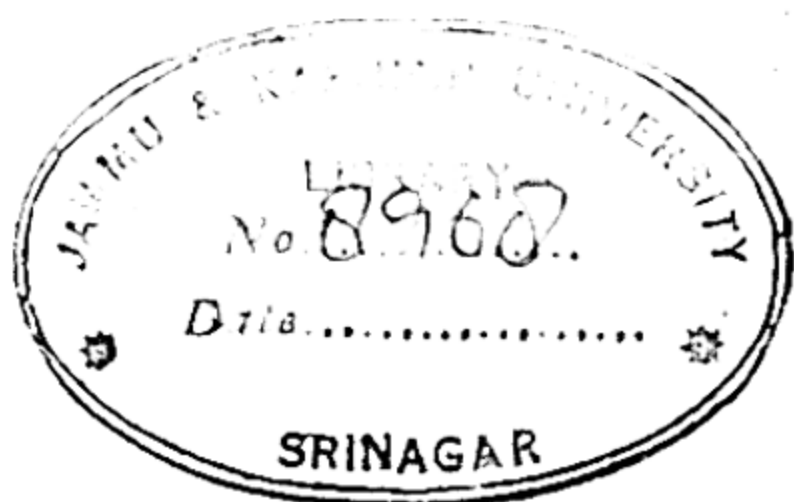


TEACHERS AND CURRICULA
IN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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Report
of a
Study by an International Team

With a Foreword

by

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FOREWORD

To provide education to all citizens is one of the recognised obligations of the modern State. For financial and other reasons no State has yet found it possible to provide facilities on a universal and compulsory basis except at the elementary stage. Even in a country so prosperous and education-conscious as the U.S.A., compulsory education is provided only up to the age of sixteen. Beyond this stage, facilities for education are being expanded on an increasing scale but till now such opportunities have been provided on a voluntary basis and at the option of the individual or the family.

At first sight, it might, therefore, appear that the most important problems of education, from a national point of view, are those which relate to elementary education. Such a conclusion would, however, be untenable. For one thing, it is not possible to draw any rigid line between different stages of education which imperceptibly merge into one another. For another, all teachers at the elementary level are, products of the secondary schools; while teachers in the secondary stage are, in their turn, the products of universities and other higher institutions. The quality of elementary education thus depends directly on the quality of secondary education and indirectly on the quality of the universities.

While the importance of secondary education in a democratic society is thus beyond question, it has to be admitted that secondary education in India has been considered generally unsatisfactory. Universities complain that the products of secondary education do not come up to their expected standards. The public, on the other hand, often feel that secondary education is not a stage complete in itself but merely a preparation for entry into universities. Because of the unsatisfactory quality of secondary education primary education has also suffered. Since teachers in elementary schools are products of secondary schools, lack of quality in secondary schools has meant poor teachers at the elementary stage.

It must, however, be pointed out that any wholesale condemnation of the existing system of education has little justification. It has its defects but it has also produced many splendid teachers and fine students. In any case, condemnation by itself is of little use. Reform and improvement of any system require careful study to discover defects and to suggest remedies. In the case of secondary education in India, while regional or sectional surveys have been undertaken from time to time, no comprehensive survey for the country as a whole was attempted till the Secondary Education Commission presented its Report in June 1953.

Even while the Commission was engaged in its work, the Government of India had decided on certain steps to ensure that there would be no delay in implementation once the Report was received. In the past, one of the main criticisms levelled against commissions has been

that their recommendations are rarely implemented. The Government was determined that this time there must be no occasion for such criticism. One step taken in anticipation of the findings of the Commission was intended to create a greater interest among headmasters of secondary schools by affording them opportunities of exchanging views and experiences. The first Seminar-cum-Camp of headmasters from all over India was held in May-June 1953. A Report of its working will be found in the Ministry of Education publication No. 150 under the title *Headmasters on Secondary Education*.

Another measure was the decision to appoint specialized groups to study in greater detail the major recommendations of the Commission. Since the Commission's Report surveyed the entire field of secondary education, it was, from the nature of the case, bound to be general. Implementation, on the other hand, requires specific and detailed proposals. It was, therefore, necessary that the work of the Commission should be followed up immediately by other expert bodies which would go into specific questions and make concrete suggestions for their implementation. It was with this end in view that an international team of eight experts was appointed to examine in greater detail than was possible in the Commission's general survey the problems of recruitment, selection and training of teachers and the structure and content of the curriculum in secondary schools.

These two problems were singled out for the first detailed study as between them they cover the most basic problems of education at any stage. The efficacy of a system of education ultimately rests on the quality of the teachers. It is, therefore, essential to attract the right type of men into the profession, give them the necessary training and create conditions in which their enthusiasm for the work is maintained throughout their professional life. Equally important is a consideration of the nature of what is taught. This determines not only the body of knowledge acquired by pupils but also the attitude and outlook with which they would approach the problems of life. In fact, this question acquires a special significance at the secondary stage. With the advent of adolescence, differences in ability and interest among children become more marked. They require different types of courses in order to bring out their innate ability. A proper balance between the various interests involves delicate problems of adjustment. Consideration of the structure and content of the curriculum thus leads by a natural step into a detailed examination of the organisation, control and administration of schools. Without a proper appraisal of these issues, the curriculum remains a dead form.

It is my pleasant duty to refer here to the very valuable assistance which we have received from the Ford Foundation in the implementation of these programmes. About two years ago, Dr. Douglas Ensminger and Mr. Philip Coombs expressed the interest of the Foundation in helping our developing programmes of education. After detailed discussions, it was agreed that the Foundation's co-operation would be most effective if it was confined to certain significant sectors of the educational field. It was accordingly decided that the help of the

Foundation would be utilised mainly in accelerating our programme of the reform and reconstruction of the system of secondary education in the country.

The international team to recommend measures for improving the quality of teachers and of the curricula in secondary schools was appointed in terms of this decision. Members of the team included four from India, two from the U. S. A., one from England and one from Scandinavia. The team travelled extensively in India and visited countries so widely different in background and development as Denmark, the U. K. and the U. S. A. These countries were selected according to a definite plan. Denmark represents a primarily agricultural community, while industrialisation has perhaps gone farthest in the U. S. A. The U. K., in spite of its high industrialisation, stands somewhere between the two. It was felt that a comparison of the methods and practices in these three countries would enable the team to frame proposals relevant to the fast changing economy of India.

The present volume embodies the results of the team's study and observation. The individual members came with widely divergent backgrounds and many initial differences in approach and outlook. Living together as a team, differences were ironed out and each member sought to enter into the spirit of his colleagues. In the end, they have produced a report which is unanimous and represents, as the convener has pointed out with justifiable pride, "a truly co-operative effort" on an international scale". I would like to place on record my warm appreciation of the service which the members of the team, and particularly the friends from abroad, have rendered to the cause of secondary education in the country.

I have already mentioned that the appointment of this international team was in accordance with the programme settled between the Government of India and the Ford Foundation. It may, therefore, well be called the first Government of India--Ford Foundation Education Project. A second project is also under way and will take the shape of ten seminars for headmasters of secondary schools, where they will discuss not only the Report of the Secondary Education Commission but also the findings of the international team. They will also have before them the report of the all-India seminar held last year. It is felt that these discussions will not only stimulate fresh interest among headmasters but also enable them to frame specific programmes of reform for their own schools.

I must not, before I conclude, fail to refer to the constant co-operation and help we have received from Dr. Douglas Ensminger and Dr. F. C. Ward in working out these projects which, I am confident, will have a cumulative effect in bringing about a reorientation of outlook and help in the early reconstruction of secondary education in the country.

4th May 1954

HUMAYUN KABIR

PREFACE

The Secondary Education Commission appointed by the Government of India presented its Report to the Ministry of Education in June, 1953. In this Report far reaching recommendations were made looking toward a major reconstruction of the programme and structure of Indian secondary education. Although many of the Commission's recommendations are implementing in character, it was felt that further study was desirable in order to work out in greater detail the implementing steps necessary to put the major recommendations into effect. For this purpose the Secondary Education Project Team was appointed by the Government of India and funds for support of the team's study were provided by the Ford Foundation.

In composition* the team was international in character, being made up of four Indians, two Americans, one Englishman and one Scandinavian, all having co-equal status as members of the team. Dr. Edward A. Pires, Vice-Principal of the Central Institute of Education, Delhi, was designated by the Ministry to act as convener. Assembling in Delhi on September 10, 1953, the team remained constantly together throughout its work and travel covering the period up to March 19, 1954.

In setting forth the framework of reference, directives and general methods of operation to be followed by the team, the following points of major significance were made by the Ministry.

First, the team was instructed to regard the Report of the Secondary Education Commission as a general framework of reference. It was made clear, however, that the team should feel free to make recommendations on matters not specifically dealt with in the Commission's Report, if such matters were directly related to the implementation of the Commission's recommendations. It was likewise made clear that the team, while having responsibility for formulation of recommendations implementing the Commission's Report, was free to disagree with the Report and to express this disagreement where, in its opinion, such expression was desirable.

Second, the team was instructed to consider the Commission's Report as a whole but to give special attention to two aspects of the Commission's recommendations,—namely, the problems having to do with the status, recruitment, selection and training of secondary school teachers and those having to do with the organization, control and administration of the structure, content and methods of secondary education.

Third, the team was directed to travel and observe secondary schools and teacher training institutions in action in India, Denmark, the United Kingdom and the United States, for the purpose of seeking clues in policy and practice which, by adaptation, might find application in the solution of problems of Indian secondary education.

* See Appendix IX

Proceeding from these general instructions, the team has visited over two hundred public and private secondary schools, teacher training institutions and institutions of higher education in the four countries named above. In addition, it has visited briefly in West Germany, Hawaii and Japan, in connection with necessary travel. It has conferred and had the advantage of the experience and thinking of hundreds of education officers in government service, school inspectors, headmasters and principals, classroom teachers, officers of teachers' associations, officers and members of boards of education and other educational authorities, teacher trainees, students and parents. From these sources of direct, "on-the-spot" observations, supplemented by discussion, reading and the team's collective experience, have been drawn the recommendations constituting the body of this report.

The team adds three other observations of pertinent interest to readers of this report. *First*, all of the recommendations set forth in the report are regarded by the team to be implementing in character. They are of two kinds, however,—those which are capable of relatively immediate application and those which have a more long range significance but are not less implementing of the Commission's Report because of this fact. It has not been deemed necessary or desirable to separate these two categories of recommendations in the body of the report since, to do so, would place them in juxtaposition with each other and remove them from the context into which they are woven. *Second*, the team decided early in its work that neither time nor energy available to it would permit extensive efforts to deal with all of the varied recommendations of the Commission. It deliberately chose, therefore, to be selective of the problems to be dealt with, and the three broad areas chosen are reflected in the corresponding three main parts into which the report has been divided. *Third*, the members have worked throughout as a team. They have travelled together, lived together, visited and observed together, worked together and thought together. This constant sharing of daily living and the development of communication within the team, more than anything else, have accounted for the lack of any dissenting opinions in this report. Initial differences of opinion, strongly held and vigorously expressed, have found their common meeting ground in consensus as a result of free give-and-take of discussion.

This report is respectfully submitted with the hope that it may serve, in significant measure, the purpose entertained by the Government of India when it appointed the Secondary Education Project Team,—the improvement of secondary education in India.

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PART I : TEACHERS

SECTION A

STATUS

We agree with the Commission that "the most important factor in the contemplated educational reconstruction is the teacher" (p. 155)*. It is our opinion that unless this factor receives adequate consideration there is little use in proceeding with other reforms.

The Commission says, "During our tour, we were painfully impressed by the fact that the social status, the salaries, and the general service conditions of teachers are far from satisfactory. On the whole, their position today is even worse than it was in the past. It compares unfavourably not only with persons of similar qualifications in other professions, but also, in many cases, with those of lower qualifications. They have often no security of tenure and their treatment by management is, in many cases, inconsistent with their position and dignity. The same story of woe was repeated at every centre by Teachers' Organizations and by responsible headmasters and others interested in education." (p. 155).

Our experience tallied with that of the Commission. We wish to add two further observations. First, that the attitude of administrative authorities towards teachers and in particular towards teachers' organizations was frequently paternalistic rather than democratic; and second, that the professional level of teachers was all too often below that required for their important task and hence in itself, tended to result in lack of confidence on the part of administration, management and the general public. We found, in short, a vicious circle.

Although all that we have just said is essentially negative, we realize that what is needed is not a mere attempt to right wrongs but a positive approach to the problem of the teacher. The teacher is presumably a person who has something to give. He should work in conditions that call forth the best in him and enable him to give that best most efficiently.

Teachers can never function merely mechanically. Even the least independent of them carrying out a rigidly prescribed syllabus faces a recurring need for creative imagination and improvisation, for the simple reason that each pupil differs from all others and presents a particular problem in human relations and in teaching technique. Nor can any but a very bad teacher be wholly lacking in inspiration. He must have some sense of human and social significance of his task, some feeling of mission, if he is to give his pupils something of value. This leads us to two conclusions. The first is that the educational system must provide the teacher with those minimum standards in living and working conditions below which he cannot continue to give his best. The second is that the importance and the creative nature of his task must receive due recognition both in theory and administrative practice. The first

*All references in this report, unless otherwise designated, are to the Report of the Secondary Education Commission.

conclusion requires implementing chiefly by measures that will improve the teacher's *economic status* ; the second, largely in measures directed to helping him achieve requisite *professional and social status*.

ECONOMIC STATUS

The salaries of Indian teachers, as the Commission points out, are lower than those of persons of similar qualifications in other professions. Their disadvantages in this respect are greater than in the other countries we have visited. There is, to be sure, both in Europe and in the United States, some gap between what teachers receive and the rewards of equally qualified persons in other occupations, but this gap is smaller than in India and more easily bridged by the other attractions which the profession offers. Excepting the field of science, where the competition of engineering industries is particularly strong in the present conditions in the West, educational authorities generally consider that they are receiving a more nearly fair share of able young men and women leaving school and college than is the case in India. There is also some difficulty in securing teachers of crafts, but in most of the areas we visited, teaching offers salaries sufficiently near to craftsmen's earnings to bring a fair number of craftsman into the schools. In India we found that the skilled craftsman earns several times as much as he would earn by becoming a teacher, and it is thus difficult to attract him to the profession.

We find even more startling disparities if we compare Indian and Western teacher salary needs. In Western Europe and the United States the teacher receives enough to supply him and his family with the necessities of life: teachers are adequately nourished, clothed and housed, and they generally have provision both for sickness and old age. Their economic status is, in short, equal to or not far below that of other public employees with similar qualifications. There is, furthermore, general parity between teacher salaries in government and private educational establishments.

Our conclusion is that teacher salaries in India are intolerably low and that there can be no hope for substantial educational progress unless they are appreciably raised.

1. Declaration of Salary Policy. *We recommend that both the Centre and the States declare it to be their policy to bring the economic level of teachers up to that of similarly qualified persons carrying out other public work of comparable responsibility.*

We realize that this goal cannot be reached in the immediate future since the resources are not at hand to rectify at once the historic injustice done to teachers, but we believe that such a declaration of policy and some immediate moves towards its fulfilment are necessary and would do much to encourage teachers.

2. Salary Committees. As the Commission has pointed out (p. 155), teachers' salaries are not only low, but they also fail to follow the principle of equal pay for equally qualified and responsible posts

within the profession itself, for parity does not exist between Government and privately owned schools. The Commission, therefore, is of the opinion that :

"teachers possessing the same qualifications and performing the same type of work should be treated on a par in the matter of grades of salary irrespective of the type of institution in which they are working" (Rec. 5, p. 175).

The Commission furthermore says :

"We, therefore, strongly urge that the States should appoint special committees to review the scales of pay of teachers of all grades and make recommendations that meet, in a fair and just manner, the present cost of living." (P. 159).

In Denmark and the United Kingdom, and in increasing measure in the United States, we found regular machinery in operation for settling salaries through negotiations between teachers and employers. The system in use in England and Wales seems to us particularly worth studying and we have included an outline of it in the Appendices (See Appendix I).

We recommend the following supplementary steps in addition to those contained in the Commission's recommendations on Salary Committees.

- (i) *The State Salary Committees might profitably include representatives of the respective education departments, finance departments teachers' organisations, headmasters' organisations, local school boards and private school managements, and have as chairman a person, not in government service, who has knowledge of educational finance.*
- (ii) *States might consider the advisability of setting up some organized form of pooling and discussing experiences and views on this question as well as seeing it from a wider angle.*

Insurance and Pensions. In Denmark and the United Kingdom teachers are safeguarded against ill-health and old age. In the United States, in common with all citizens, they have provision against old age and in increasing measure they are being safeguarded against ill-health as well. We find the scheme suggested by the Commission in its Appendix IV of great interest and agree with the recommendation that

"In order to relieve teachers from anxieties about their own and their dependents' future which will affect the efficiency of their work, the system of triple benefit scheme, pension-cum-provident fund-cum-insurance, should be introduced in all States" (Rec. 7, p. 175).

3. Age of Retirement. The age of compulsory retirement of teachers in Denmark is sixty-five, in England and Scotland sixty-five, and over most of the United States sixty-five or seventy. We consider

compulsory retirement of teachers at fifty-five undesirable, even having regard to the different conditions of life in India and the West.

We recommend that the age of compulsory retirement of teachers should not be earlier than sixty and that, with the approval of the Director of Education, it may be further extended.

Private Tuitions. The Commission points out (p. 163) that the most usual form of remunerative work teachers undertake outside school hours is that of private tuitions, and that this practice "is attended with several evils". We agree with this view and consider that steps should be taken to eliminate these evils, but we see no other effective and admissible first step but that of increasing teacher salaries. (See further discussion of private tuitions under *Professional Status*).

Additional Employment. The Commission suggests (p. 163) that States consider the possibility of offering teachers paid employment outside the regular school work, for instance, in rural reconstruction projects. We endorse this suggestion in so far as the teacher has not already a load of work that makes any addition injurious to his health and efficiency, and in so far as additional employment involves the use of his teaching skill and experience. As economic and cultural conditions generally improve, there will arise a need for the help of the teacher in a number of fields, such as libraries, vocational guidance, adult classes, or part-time courses. This kind of work has the added advantage of bringing him into closer touch with the community. We found the latter practice particularly well developed in Denmark where recreational, cultural, and vocational or semi-vocational courses exist in rich profusion and offer spare time employment to teachers within their professional field.

4. **Special Posts within the School.** In all the countries visited we found systems of making special paid posts of higher responsibility in the schools available to teachers on the basis of proved ability, experience and seniority. Examples are charge of "houses", headship or directorship of subject departments, guidance of teacher trainees. Headships and assistant headships may be considered as a final stage of such promotion within the school.

We recommend that education departments and managements give consideration to working out schemes which will provide for the promotion of the most competent teachers to posts of higher responsibility within the school. (See further discussion under *Professional Status*).

5. **Salary Increments through improved professional qualifications.** Salary increments following on length of service are a common feature of Indian and other educational systems. In the European and American systems we visited we also found increments granted for academic or professional qualifications gained through in-service training. This might take place in summer schools, evening classes or courses taken during a leave of absence. Universities, training colleges and education departments all offered such opportunities and encouraged teachers to make use of them.

We recommend that education departments consider ways and means of helping teachers to obtain in-service training and recognising the improvement in their professional and academic qualifications by suitable salary increments.

An American example of a system of increments not dependent solely on taking courses is given in the Appendices (See Appendix II).

Other amenities. The Commission recommends (p. 161) giving teachers a number of other amenities in addition to salary. This recommendation seems to us to open up both a question of policy and a question of expediency. There is an opinion regarding salary policies, specially in some Western countries, that teachers must be placed on an equal footing with other citizens. The goal to aim at according to this view, is that teachers should be adequately paid and thus enabled to stand on their own feet and dispose of their salaries as they see fit between necessities and amenities of their own choice. They should not receive special amenities that put them in a category apart, least of all a category that is the recipient of charity or patronage. Whatever teachers receive in lieu of money salary, they should receive as part of a contract which respects their dignity and independence and as a necessary element in their working conditions.

There is another way of looking at the teacher, which is consistent with the *guru* tradition in India. In this tradition, the teacher was a man dedicated to a high calling and was revered for it. His simple material needs were met by gifts from those who honoured and loved him for his wisdom and his teaching. He was in some measure a privileged person for the very reason that he gave out of his devotion and beyond anything that might be called a contract.

In India today, high talk about the teacher as a *guru* ill accords with the treatment he all too commonly receives, nor do all teachers carry out their task in the *guru* spirit or have the qualities that merit the venerable title. Under the pressure of modern life and with education becoming more and more an organized public responsibility, it also becomes the duty of government to secure a fair living standard for teachers and their families. No reference to the *guru* tradition is acceptable as an excuse for not fulfilling this obligation. With the need for a large and growing number of teachers, it would be unrealistic to expect them all to be dedicated souls or to deny that humbler motivation, spurred by material reward, can play a fruitful part in meeting an expanding demand for education. It would be a mistake to conclude that nothing remains of the *guru* tradition or to fail to recognize it as an element in the Indian heritage. From the point of view of those seeking to cherish and revitalize the tradition, to grant the teacher, in addition to his monetary salary, amenities that give him in some measure a special position, is not to lower his status but to raise it. It restores in some measure the time-honoured relationship between him and the people among whom he works.

The two points of view lead to different policies regarding teacher's salaries and amenities. Adherents of both views should find it easy to agree on providing special amenities in present circumstances when

resources are not at hand to give adequate money payment. Agreement should be still easier in regard to amenities such as housing which improve the teacher's working conditions and the likelihood of obtaining better results in the school.

These amenities given to the teacher must be looked upon as his right and as part of his necessary working conditions. The choice between raising salaries to a level where expenditure on amenities can be met out of them on the one hand and continuing the amenities as equivalent to part of the increase in salary on the other, should be decided in consultation with teachers' organisations when circumstances change. As the general economic conditions improve and as industrialization advances it seems to us that the first point of view may become an increasing factor in Indian thinking. States will presumably decide on their policy regarding provision of amenities after consideration of both these views.

Free Education of Teachers' Children. The Commission recommends that "the children of teachers should be given free education throughout the school stage". (Rec. 10, p. 175).

We endorse this recommendation as a temporary measure.

Housing. The Commission recommends that "through a system of co-operative house building societies, teachers should be provided with quarters so as to enable them to live near the school and devote more time to the many-sided activities of the school." (Rec. 11, p. 175).

We endorse this recommendation as a temporary measure.

The Commission prefaces this recommendation with a note on the difficulty of obtaining accommodation near schools, particularly in rural areas and especially for women teachers. In another part of the Report (p. 199), the Commission emphasizes the benefit to the school of having the head and at least some of the teaching staff in residence close by, and recommends that the state should help to start co-operative building societies as well as give building loans to managements on easy terms. Our experience tallied with the Commission's regarding housing difficulties and we noted that in Denmark, heads and assistant heads of rural schools are regularly provided with housing at a low rental as a part of their contract.

6. Medical Care and Treatment. The Commission recommends that teachers "should be given free medical attention and treatment in hospitals and dispensaries." (Rec. 13, p. 175).

We further recommend that a regular system of health insurance with contributions from the employer and the employee, be the goal at which to aim.

Travel concessions and leave. The Commission recommends that "teachers wishing to go to health resorts or holiday camps or to attend educational conferences, seminars, etc., should be given travel concessions and leave facilities." (Rec. 12, p. 175).

We regard attendance of teachers at conferences, seminars or other professional meetings as a part of their professional duties, and consider that their expenses in carrying out these duties should be regarded as recognised expenditures. Furthermore, we believe that travel concessions should be granted to schools to encourage such activity and that schools should encourage teachers by granting them leave facilities as well as the benefits of the travel grants.

The Headmaster. As the Commission says (p. 163), "On him the proper working of the school ultimately depends".

Wherever we visited educational institutions, the truth of this statement was borne in upon us. It is equally true of heads of training colleges and of schools. We wish to support the recommendation that "in order to attract persons of the right type to the responsible position of the headmaster, the emoluments of the post should be made sufficiently attractive." (Rec. 18, p. 176).

We have given two brief outlines of salary policy regarding headmasters in the appendices (See Appendix III).

PROFESSIONAL STATUS

Agreeing that priority must be given to the teacher's economic status, we are no less aware of the importance of the teacher's professional status. We further realize that this is something which is largely internal to the profession, although certain external factors and conditions are also important.

Responsibility of the Profession itself. We believe that unless the profession creates a certain status for itself, which is reflected both in the personnel and the kind of work that is done, it cannot hold its own either economically or socially, nor get the recognition it needs. We must face up to the fact that it is teachers and educators themselves who are mainly responsible for the professional status of teaching. As the guide book, *How Can We Get Enough Good Teachers?* published by the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools (United States) puts it: "The status of teachers, in a community or a society, is an intangible factor for which teachers themselves are primarily responsible. They, like anyone else, must earn recognition—it cannot be handed to them." This statement is as true of communities and teachers in India as in the United States or anywhere else.

The Teacher. To earn recognition, the teacher must have academic and professional competence of a high order. This competence is not something to be measured simply by the degrees he holds, but rather by his mastery of the subject he teaches and the methods he employs. Equally important is the adequacy of the teacher as a person and his attitude to his work. Unless he himself takes a pride in the job he is doing and is alive to its importance, teaching cannot enjoy a high professional status. It is only when such a conviction on the part of the teacher is deep-rooted and his confidence in the value and significance

of his work is firm and dominant, that he is likely to develop the personal qualities that are necessary to fulfil his mission. It is nothing more than a cliché to refer to teaching as a "calling" or a "mission" when the profession receives such poor recognition. Teachers cannot escape the fact that unless *they* look upon teaching as a calling which demands devotion, it can never achieve real importance or receive recognition by society.

7. Appeal to Teachers. *We recommend that the Centre and the States make an appeal to teachers in connection with the proposed declaration of salary policy (See our Recommendation 1). The appeal should call upon teachers to do their part in raising the status of the profession and underline the necessity for them to win recognition by their own efforts.*

8. Tenure. Conditions of tenure are of basic importance for both the economic and professional status of teachers. The Commission (p. 160) points to a number of causes of complaint that teachers now have in this matter, at times amounting to shocking abuses of the teacher or "humiliating treatment" of him, and sums up the general position as unsatisfactory. Our experience supports this view.

The Commission (p. 160) also points to the other side of the question—the duty of teachers to set a high example of personal and professional integrity.

In the foreign countries we visited, teachers enjoy a far higher degree of security than their colleagues in many parts of India. But security of tenure has not been an easy problem to solve anywhere, and in most areas it still presents occasional difficulties. What we can say in brief summary is that the greater we found the strength and the sense of responsibility of teachers' associations, the more satisfactory was the position regarding tenure. The strength of the associations upheld the security, and their professional responsibility insured that teachers did not abuse the security. The two factors went, and plainly must go, hand in hand.

There is here, in our opinion, a corollary to be drawn: the most likely way to achieve a satisfactory solution of the tenure problem is the positive way of basing it on the sense of responsibility of the profession rather than the negative way of primarily seeking safeguards against abuses of security by individuals. As a corollary to this again, teachers' associations must justify such trust or face a disastrous loss of public confidence and a consequent set-back in their status.

We agree with the Commission that "after confirmation, a teacher should normally be continued in service till the age of retirement." (p. 156).

We further recommend that State education departments, in consultation with teachers' associations and other interested parties, draw up tenure systems that will give teachers in non-government schools security of tenure on a par with that of their colleagues in government service.

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15. Vertical Teacher Organization. A factor which contributes in no small measure to a lack of proper professional status in teaching is the rigid discrimination within the profession itself, college teachers looking down upon secondary school teaching as something lower and less important, and secondary teachers looking down on primary school teaching in the same manner. The entire process of education must be looked upon as an integral whole, where each stage naturally leads to the next and is, in a sense, integrated with it. We noticed, as we toured in India, that there were very few teachers' organisations—the South Indian Teachers' Union is an outstanding exception—which brought within their scope teachers of all three or even of any two levels. The All-India Federation of Educational Associations which gives equal importance and weightage to teachers of all stages and to all phases of education is another worthy example, and we feel that the pattern it embodies should be reproduced at the State, city and district levels. It would give teaching a stable professional status if all teachers could occasionally meet on a platform to consider questions which affected the profession as a whole. In this connection we would like to mention that we were particularly impressed by the National Union of Teachers in England which brings primary, secondary and technical teachers together and by the National Education Association in the United States which effectively brings together, administrators, principals and elementary and secondary teachers. A vertical organization is possible when the qualifications and the attainments of teachers at the different stages do not differ radically. In India, this difference, and especially the use of English as the medium of communication at conferences, meetings, etc., has come in the way of the establishment of teachers' organizations that can operate vertically, for the primary teacher not knowing English is not in a position to participate in the proceedings conducted in English. Now that, in the new set-up, there is a tendency to use the regional and national language at conferences more frequently, the establishment of common teachers' organizations on a vertical basis should be possible.

We recommend that the national, state and local associations consider ways and means of integrating the separate associations at each level that exist at present.

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those of the national associations of Denmark, England and Wales and the United States.

Advancement within the school. It is necessary that the teaching profession should have an organised structure, making advancement in terms of posts of greater responsibility possible within the school itself. Provision of such posts which do not take the teacher out of the classroom (such as teachers of classes where experimental work is done or heads of subject departments) as well as of supervisory and administrative posts in the school would lead to a more systematic organisation of work and make it possible for competent experience to earn recognition in a tangible form. Such organisation would, in the long run, raise the professional status of teaching. (For our recommendation in this matter see Recommendation 4).

Private Tutions. The question of paid private tutions is necessarily connected with the professional status of teaching. Private coaching within limits and in exceptional cases has its place, but when it becomes a common practice and pupils in large numbers come to depend on it and teachers to encourage it, it is a sign that something is wrong with the education imparted in the school. One thing that is positively wrong is the large size of classes, making individual attention impossible even by devoted and able teachers. The school itself should be able to make some provision for the exceptionally gifted pupils at the one end and the slow learners at the other end, either by better grouping or by providing special opportunities, such as special classes under teachers selected by the head. The *raison d'être* of private coaching should be the *pupil's need* in exceptional circumstances and not the teacher's need to supplement his income. The widespread practice of private tutions in India may have helped to supplement the teacher's income, but it has led to a deterioration of the status of the profession and made both pupils and the public suspicious of the value and genuineness of what is being done in the classroom.

It places the teacher in the wrong position to be a supplicant for favour from his pupils' parents, asking for work that he should have done as part of his normal duties but has failed to do. Rules and regulations abolishing or restricting private coaching may diminish the evil but are not compatible with the dignity and freedom of the teacher and can in any case not be completely effective. What is far more important is the moral pressure that teachers themselves will feel in the interest of the dignity of their profession. We expect that with better salaries and better conditions of service, teachers themselves, realizing the potential dangers of this practice, will in an organized manner decide to give it up. It is the responsibility of teachers' organizations rather than of departments of education to see that private coaching becomes the occasional exception and not the general rule.

SOCIAL STATUS

Given proper economic and working conditions and a high professional status, teachers will obtain adequate social standing without special measures directed to that end. We do feel, however, that it is

desirable that those who by virtue of the position they hold in the community, are able to influence public attitude, should be aware of the importance of the teacher's role in society and should give suitable expression to this awareness.

SECTION B

RECRUITMENT

We have already indicated our agreement with the Commission in its judgment that the teacher is the most important factor in the reconstruction of Indian secondary education. We register our further accord with the Commission's opinion that, for this reason, the teacher's personal qualities, his educational qualifications, his professional training and his status are matters of utmost concern.

These considerations support the emphasis we have sought to give to the problems of recruitment and selection of teachers, as well as their status and training. If Indian secondary schools are to be staffed with the kind of trained teachers which the needs of secondary school youth require, and in such numbers as the situation demands, effective means must be found for recruiting large numbers of able young people to the profession.

Twofold aspect of the Problem. The problem is twofold ; it has a quantitative aspect and a qualitative aspect. To furnish the schools with adequate numbers of teachers requires effective means of *recruitment*. To furnish the schools with the kind of teachers desired by them requires that effective means of *selection* be employed. As long as teacher demand continues to exceed supply, it is obvious that effective processes of selection cannot operate. Under such circumstances, schools will continue to employ, and children will continue to be taught by, relatively unqualified teachers, many of whom lack the requisite personal and academic qualifications for effective and dynamic teaching.

It is our considered judgment that an essential point of beginning on the problems of educational reconstruction is the successful recruitment of substantially larger numbers of able young people to the teacher training institutions. Until this can be done, no selective processes worthy of the name can be used. Unless worthy standards of selection of trainees can be used, the training institutions will continue to be a place of refuge for the unfit and the mediocre, and the quality of training will be depressed. We see no other realistic approach to the total problem of providing the schools with adequate numbers of qualified, trained teachers than that of bending every effort towards recruitment.

of his work is firm and dominant, that he is likely to develop the personal qualities that are necessary to fulfil his mission. It is nothing more than a cliché to refer to teaching as a "calling" or a "mission" when the profession receives such poor recognition. Teachers cannot escape the fact that unless *they* look upon teaching as a calling which demands devotion, it can never achieve real importance or receive recognition by society.

7. Appeal to Teachers. *We recommend that the Centre and the States make an appeal to teachers in connection with the proposed declaration of salary policy (See our Recommendation 1). The appeal should call upon teachers to do their part in raising the status of the profession and underline the necessity for them to win recognition by their own efforts.*

8. Tenure. Conditions of tenure are of basic importance for both the economic and professional status of teachers. The Commission (p. 160) points to a number of causes of complaint that teachers now have in this matter, at times amounting to shocking abuses of the teacher or "humiliating treatment" of him, and sums up the general position as unsatisfactory. Our experience supports this view.

The Commission (p. 160) also points to the other side of the question—the duty of teachers to set a high example of personal and professional integrity.

In the foreign countries we visited, teachers enjoy a far higher degree of security than their colleagues in many parts of India. But security of tenure has not been an easy problem to solve anywhere, and in most areas it still presents occasional difficulties. What we can say in brief summary is that the greater we found the strength and the sense of responsibility of teachers' associations, the more satisfactory was the position regarding tenure. The strength of the associations upheld the security, and their professional responsibility insured that teachers did not abuse the security. The two factors went, and plainly must go, hand in hand.

There is here, in our opinion, a corollary to be drawn: the most likely way to achieve a satisfactory solution of the tenure problem is the positive way of basing it on the sense of responsibility of the profession rather than the negative way of primarily seeking safeguards against abuses of security by individuals. As a corollary to this again, teachers' associations must justify such trust or face a disastrous loss of public confidence and a consequent set-back in their status.

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Advancement within the school. It is necessary that the teaching profession should have an organised structure, making advancement in terms of posts of greater responsibility possible within the school itself. Provision of such posts which do not take the teacher out of the classroom (such as teachers of classes where experimental work is done or heads of subject departments) as well as of supervisory and administrative posts in the school would lead to a more systematic organisation of work and make it possible for competent experience to earn recognition in a tangible form. Such organisation would, in the long run, raise the professional status of teaching. (For our recommendation in this matter see Recommendation 4).

Private Tutions. The question of paid private tutions is necessarily connected with the professional status of teaching. Private coaching within limits and in exceptional cases has its place, but when it becomes a common practice and pupils in large numbers come to depend on it and teachers to encourage it, it is a sign that something is wrong with the education imparted in the school. One thing that is positively wrong is the large size of classes, making individual attention impossible even by devoted and able teachers. The school itself should be able to make some provision for the exceptionally gifted pupils at the one end and the slow learners at the other end, either by better grouping or by providing special opportunities, such as special classes under teachers selected by the head. The *raison d'être* of private coaching should be the *pupil's need* in exceptional circumstances and not the teacher's need to supplement his income. The widespread practice of private tutions in India may have helped to supplement the teacher's income, but it has led to a deterioration of the status of the profession and made both pupils and the public suspicious of the value and genuineness of what is being done in the classroom.

It places the teacher in the wrong position to be a supplicant for favour from his pupils' parents, asking for work that he should have done as part of his normal duties but has failed to do. Rules and regulations abolishing or restricting private coaching may diminish the evil but are not compatible with the dignity and freedom of the teacher and can in any case not be completely effective. What is far more important is the moral pressure that teachers themselves will feel in the interest of the dignity of their profession. We expect that with better salaries and better conditions of service, teachers themselves, realizing the potential dangers of this practice, will in an organized manner decide to give it up. It is the responsibility of teachers' organizations rather than of departments of education to see that private coaching becomes the occasional exception and not the general rule.

SOCIAL STATUS

Given proper economic and working conditions and a high professional status, teachers will obtain adequate social standing without special measures directed to that end. We do feel, however, that it is

desirable that those who by virtue of the position they hold in the community, are able to influence public attitude, should be aware of the importance of the teacher's role in society and should give suitable expression to this awareness.

SECTION B

RECRUITMENT

We have already indicated our agreement with the Commission in its judgment that the teacher is the most important factor in the reconstruction of Indian secondary education. We register our further accord with the Commission's opinion that, for this reason, the teacher's personal qualities, his educational qualifications, his professional training and his status are matters of utmost concern.

These considerations support the emphasis we have sought to give to the problems of recruitment and selection of teachers, as well as their status and training. If Indian secondary schools are to be staffed with the kind of trained teachers which the needs of secondary school youth require, and in such numbers as the situation demands, effective means must be found for recruiting large numbers of able young people to the profession.

Twofold aspect of the Problem. The problem is twofold ; it has a quantitative aspect and a qualitative aspect. To furnish the schools with adequate numbers of teachers requires effective means of *recruitment*. To furnish the schools with the kind of teachers desired by them requires that effective means of *selection* be employed. As long as teacher demand continues to exceed supply, it is obvious that effective processes of selection cannot operate. Under such circumstances, schools will continue to employ, and children will continue to be taught by, relatively unqualified teachers, many of whom lack the requisite personal and academic qualifications for effective and dynamic teaching.

It is our considered judgment that an essential point of beginning on the problems of educational reconstruction is the successful recruitment of substantially larger numbers of able young people to the teacher training institutions. Until this can be done, no selective processes worthy of the name can be used. Unless worthy standards of selection of trainees can be used, the training institutions will continue to be a place of refuge for the unfit and the mediocre, and the quality of training will be depressed. We see no other realistic approach to the total problem of providing the schools with adequate numbers of qualified, trained teachers than that of bending every effort towards recruitment.

The Increasing Need for Secondary Teachers. It is pertinent, we believe, to point out that present and foreseeable needs of Indian secondary education require a vast increase in the numbers of able young people in training to become teachers. The Ministry of Education, Government of India, in its *Quinquennial Review, 1947-1952, Progress of Education in India*, indicates that during the five-year period, the total number of middle schools increased from 8,294 in 1946-1947 to 12,124 in 1951-1952, and, during the same period, the number of high schools increased from 3,659 to 7,538. The same report indicates that the number of students on the rolls of the middle schools rose from 1,129,055 to 1,808,726. Similarly, the number of students on the rolls of the high schools rose from 1,571,397 to 2,068,043. This tremendous increase in the number of secondary schools in India and the number of students attending such schools has continued during the two years following the period covered by this report. Furthermore, there is every good reason to believe that such further increases will take place for several years to come, limited only by the availability of resources to build and equip schools and the number of teachers available to staff them.

It is our assumption that the amazing increase in secondary education which has taken place during the past seven years will very probably accelerate in the years ahead. Factors to support this assumption may be listed as follows :—

- (i) extension of educational opportunities upward beyond the primary school stage ;
- (ii) increase in the proportion of secondary school age youth in secondary schools ;
- (iii) increase in the actual number of secondary school age youth ;
- (iv) provision of more suitable types of secondary education through diversified courses and multipurpose schools ;
- (v) improvement in economic conditions ;
- (vi) improvement in the quality of the educational process ;
- (vii) reduction in the size of classes.

In short, it is our belief that the rapid increase in secondary schools and in the number of students in these schools will continue for many years to come, that the problem of providing qualified, trained teachers for these schools will continue to be acute, and that the pressing need for recruitment of able young people to the teaching profession will also continue. For these reasons, our views on the problems of recruitment anticipate the necessity of a long-term programme of recruitment. Our attention, therefore, has been given primarily to those means of recruitment which we deem most suitable to a long-term need, rather than depending on potentially more dramatic "campaigns" whose effectiveness may be questioned in the light of a continued need for many years ahead.

Sound Principles of Recruitment. Having stated our "conclusions" with respect to the need for effective, long-term recruitment efforts, we have two further observations to make. *First*, the experience of other countries, when faced with similar problems, clearly indicates that adequate number of qualified persons are not likely to be attracted to the teaching profession merely through this operation of normal social forces. Experience in both the United Kingdom and the United States offers rather conclusive evidence that the normal forces which operate to attract young people to the teaching profession must be supplemented by organized programmes of recruitment. *Second*, if such organized programmes of recruitment are to be effective, we believe they will be effective, in the long run, in proportion to the degree to which they are based on sound principles. These principles, we would state as follows :—

- (i) The programme should be organised and efforts should be co-ordinated.
- (ii) Existing resources, residing within the educational institutions themselves and the communities served by these institutions, should be utilized.
- (iii) The base of both the professional and lay organization of the programme must be broadened.
- (iv) Provision for participation by both professional and lay groups must be made.

Supporting Conditions : Whatever form recruitment programmes may take, we believe they will fail unless they are supported concurrently by successful efforts in three related areas.

First, the economic, professional and social status of teachers must be sharply improved ; *second*, provisions for training must be increased and must be made completely free to trainees ; *third*, the teaching profession must develop a unified programme of constructive efforts, supported by a strong, united, vertical type organisation. Given these improvements in supporting conditions, a well organized and co-ordinated programme of recruitment will have its best chance of success.

The Role of Teachers in Recruitment. We assert with all the vigour at our command that the most important means of recruitment are those which are daily at the command of teachers themselves and the schools in which they teach. The example set and inspiration given by a happy, devoted and skilful teacher will do more to recruit able and promising young people to teaching than any other possible means. If young people see that teachers are poorly paid, poorly clad, poorly housed and poorly regarded by the community ; if they observe that teachers, unlike members of other professions or those engaged in business, are unable to enjoy the normal recreational and leisure time activities possible to others ; if they know that teachers are unable to make reasonable provision for the security of their families and for maintaining dignity in their old age, if these are things which are daily evident to young people, who can hope that they will be either eager or

willing to enter the profession? Quite aside from the matter of rendering simple, social justice to teachers, India can ill afford and must not permit teachers to continue to be the prime example of poorly regarded servants of the public interest. For these reasons, we cannot refrain from reiterating here the extreme importance of sharp and prompt improvement in the status of teachers.

In addition to the responsibility of society towards teachers, there is the equally important responsibility of teachers towards society. No amount of provision in salary, working conditions or social status can be a substitute for devotion to duty and competence in performance which are among the hallmarks of the real teacher. There must be that quality in the real teacher which, despite difficulties and handicaps and discouragements, persistently shines forth for all to behold. Who can reasonably hope that able and aspiring young people will be attracted to a profession whose practitioners are dull, unimaginative and uninspiring, whose interest in boys and girls is but thinly assumed, whose major preoccupation is minimum time-serving rather than free and full giving of themselves? What young person, possessed of imagination and an awakening desire to render service to a free India, will willingly choose to ally himself with or hazard his future in the company of those whom he has not good reasons to respect? If such young people, so desperately needed in the vital cause of education, are to be attracted to and enlisted in that cause, those whose major responsibility it is to teach youth must set a standard of personal devotion and professional skill worthy of emulation. They must be and appear to be happy, enthusiastic and dynamic personalities, in short, persons whose daily example is calculated to evoke in young people their inherent idealism and translate it into a motivating and controlling force.

This is the unique opportunity of teachers; furthermore, it is their obligation as well. No programme of recruitment, no action by government, and no efforts by society at large can rally to the cause of recruitment that which teachers and schools alone have the sole and indisputable power to accomplish. Thus, the recommendations and suggestions made in this section of our report are cast against a background of recognition of the indispensable role of teachers as teachers, and are intended to be supplementary to that role and not a substitute for it.

16. Determining School Needs for Teachers. Any programme of teacher recruitment, if it is to avoid shortages and accomplish the two major purposes set forth at the beginning of this section of our report, must be based on a knowledge of the *kinds* of teacher required and upon carefully calculated estimates of the *numbers* needed in each category and at each stage. These estimates should also take into account the requirements for teachers in terms of professional qualifications and training.

We recommend that careful estimates of teacher needs in each level of institution and each category of teachers, for each of the States and for India as a whole be prepared. Such estimates should be made for not less than five years in advance and should be revised annually. Responsibility

for the collection, collation and dissemination of these estimates and related information should rest with the Ministry of Education, Government of India. The preparation of the estimates should rest with the several States.

In a period of rapid expansion, forecasting is particularly difficult. The process becomes even more difficult when, as in the present juncture, changes in the structure and content of secondary education are in process or contemplated. Estimates, however, are necessary and they should be given wide publicity, not only within the profession itself but to the lay public generally.

17. State Advisory Committee on Teacher Recruitment. *We recommend the establishment in each State of a State Advisory Committee on Teacher Recruitment, the basic purpose of which would be the development of means and methods by which enough young people can be recruited to teaching to meet the estimated teacher needs of the schools.*

The State Advisory Committee on Teacher Recruitment should be composed of members drawn from groups concerned with education, such as : (a) public and private primary school and secondary school staffs ; (b) colleges and universities ; (c) teacher training institutions ; (d) organised professional associations of teachers ; (e) district and local school boards and boards of management of private schools ; (f) the state departments of education ; (g) the lay public, preferably organised parent organizations, where such organizations exist.

We contemplate three functions for this Committee, namely :—

- (i) to suggest, recommend and advise upon programmes of recruitment in schools, colleges, universities and other sources of supply ;
- (ii) to co-ordinate programmes of recruitment established by schools, colleges, teachers' colleges, professional associations and other agencies ;
- (iii) to advise the state department of education on all matters concerned with the recruitment of teachers.

We note here that, as a possible alternative to the establishment of a State Advisory Committee on Teacher Recruitment, some States may prefer to entrust these functions to the State Advisory Board, where such a board already exists or to some other already existing agency. We feel obliged, however, to point out that if this is done, the degree of active attention likely to be given to such an important problem as teacher recruitment is apt to be less than it requires. This is especially apt to be the case where such boards meet with relative infrequency and have responsibility for many other matters as well.

Kinds of Recruitment Activities. With a view to indicating more clearly the possible kinds of recruitment activities which various types of educational institutions and other group might undertake, we have attempted to list some we regard as possible and appropriate.

Secondary Schools :—

- (i) Organised guidance programmes, including career conferences.
- (ii) Opportunities for interested students to observe and assist teachers in their respective schools. (The team saw such practice in successful operation in the schools of Santa Barbara, California).
- (iii) Provision in the social studies courses in the high school and in the last year of the middle school of units of study dealing with occupations and vocations, *including teaching*. (This we saw in general operation in the high schools of New York State in the United States).
- (iv) Inclusion of an elective course in Education in the high school curriculum. (See the section in this report on *Curriculum*).
- (v) Organization of appropriate activity groups such as the team found in many American high schools,—for example, the Future Teachers of America. (See Appendix V).
- (vi) Provision of library source materials dealing with vocations, *including teaching*, such as books, pamphlets, clipping files, etc.
- (vii) Regular inclusion on the school's bulletin boards of displays or exhibits of materials dealing with vocations, *including teaching*.
- (viii) Use of audio-visual aids dealing with vocations *including teaching*.

Colleges and Universities :—

- (i) Inclusion of an elective course in Education, such as is already being offered in some Indian colleges and universities.
- (ii) Organization of extra-mural lectures and discussion groups on problems of education.
- (iii) Utilization of a student counselling and advisory service.
- (iv) Provision of opportunities for and active encouragement of service in nursery schools, night schools, community centres and recreational programmes. Where possible, such activities should be organised by the institution itself.
- (v) Development of appropriate library sections in the fields of Education and Psychology for general reference, reading and supplementary work.

Teacher Training Institutions :—

- (i) Active co-operation on the part of the faculty with high schools, colleges and universities in the programme of teacher recruitment.

(ii) Co-operation in the preparation of materials such as literature on teaching, high school social studies units, graphs, charts and other audio-visual aids.

(iii) Activities designed to furnish data for the guidance of the State Advisory Committee and others.

(iv) Organization of a "College and University Co-operation Plan", aimed at recruiting graduates from such institutions. (See Appendix VI for description of the Harvard University 29-College Plan).

(v) Preparation and orientation of teachers to handle the elective course in Education at the high school level.

Organized Professional Associations :—

(i) Broadening and strengthening of the professional organizations of teachers in order to achieve unity of purpose and effort.

(ii) Active and continuous efforts to improve professional standards, e.g., group conferences, publications, study clubs, experimentation with methods and materials, in-service training programmes.

(iii) Organized efforts to improve the economic and social status of teachers.

(iv) Provision of scholarships to competitively chosen young people desiring to enter the teaching profession. Assuming that teacher training is tuition-free, such scholarships should furnish maintenance costs.

(v) Preparation, publication and dissemination of materials designed to present the teaching profession to young people.

District and Local Boards of Education and Boards of Management :—

We recognize that boards of education and boards of management are authoritative bodies charged with overall control and support of schools within the framework of law. Such groups, through their influence on legislation on the one hand, and their policy-making powers on the other, can play a major role in supporting any programme of teacher recruitment and improvement in teacher status.

It is urged that such boards assume an active and contributing role in the work of the State Advisory Committee, and the teacher recruitment programmes in their respective districts, communities and schools.

Specific areas in which such boards have primary responsibility for supporting teacher recruitment include :

(i) Provision of suitable stipends for teacher trainees.

(ii) Provision of adequate guidance and counselling service in the schools under their jurisdiction.

- (iii) Insistence on, and approval of, inclusion of units of study in the curriculum designed to encourage young people to enter the teaching profession.
- (iv) Provision of funds for making suitable materials available to teachers and students.
- (a) Encouragement of in-service growth of teachers by suitable increments based on professional study and self-improvement.

State Departments of Education :—

What has been said in the preceding paragraphs about boards of education and boards of management applies also to state departments of education. Such departments, in addition to the responsibilities shared with such board, have the further unique opportunity through their inspectorial and supervisory staffs, to stimulate, encourage, support and advise individual schools and teachers with respect to all phases of the school programme, including teacher recruitment.

Organised Lay Groups :

(i) Active efforts to organise parents and other citizens in support of schools and the teaching profession.

(ii) Making available to the support of teacher recruitment activities the facilities of the press, the radio, television (when it is introduced in India) and other channels of public information and communication.

18. **Recruitment of Teachers for Rural Areas.** Everywhere we went in India we were told by the authorities of the great difficulty they were experiencing in obtaining suitable teachers for the rural schools. There can be no doubt that this difficulty will grow as educational facilities are extended.

We therefore recommend that special attention be paid to the problem of recruiting teachers for the rural areas and everything possible be done to make rural school teaching attractive and satisfying.

It was frequently stated during our tour of India and in conversations with Indian educationalists familiar with the rural scene that : (a) not enough teacher trainees are recruited from rural areas, (b) not enough training institutions are located in rural areas, (c) trainees, once having had the "urbanizing" experiences resulting from training in institutions located in towns and cities, are reluctant or unwilling to teach in rural schools, and (d) amenities commonly available to teachers in rural areas are so inadequate as to effectively discourage teachers from accepting service in such schools. We believe that all four of these observations are justified and, together, constitute the major reasons for the reluctance of trained teachers to work in rural schools.

We have the following suggestions to offer—

(i) Steps should be taken to locate an adequate number of training institutions in rural areas to provide facilities for training teachers recruited from rural areas or intending to teach in rural schools.

(ii) In recruiting teachers for rural areas, emphasis may well be given to an appeal to their idealism and local community loyalties.

(iii) Definite provisions should be made in the course of training in established institutions at both the undergraduate and graduate levels, for a variety of activities calculated to draw attention to the needs of rural areas and the relationship of these needs to the national welfare. Illustrations of the kind of activities we have in mind are : (a) planned visits to rural schools ; (b) organised study of rural problems ; and (c) practice teaching or apprenticeship training in rural schools.

(iv) Systematic efforts should be made to provide teachers in rural areas with adequate amenities such as housing and facilities for gardening—a practice now being inaugurated in some sections of India and one which we saw in successful operation in Denmark, where service in rural schools is considered preferable to service in urban schools by large numbers of teachers.

(v) Special provisions should be made for travel by teachers serving in remote rural areas in order to attend conferences, to go on trips to their homes or to make a suitable holiday.

It has been suggested to us that special inducements might be made to prospective rural area teachers in the way of stipends which would carry with them the stipulated obligation to teach in rural schools for a designated minimum period of time. We do not favour such a plan, if for no other reason than our belief that such an obligation is not enforceable. Neither do we believe that there is any ultimately successful way to staff rural schools adequately with trained teachers than to make rural school teaching sufficiently attractive, in comparison with urban schools, so that teachers want to teach there. "Urbanization" is a force which is not likely to be offset by deploring its existence. It will be met effectively only as the conditions of work and the attractions of teaching and living in a rural area are such as will sustain the idealism of teachers.

We would conclude this section of our report on the same note which was struck at the beginning,—namely, the importance of the role of the teacher. The Commission has given eloquent voice to this role as it affects teacher recruitment, when it states :

"We have suggested that young people who show promise of development into good teachers should be recruited. We wish to point out that the teachers themselves are potential recruiting agents *par excellence*. By their attitude towards the public and their students, they are daily recruiting young people into or out of the profession. At the upper secondary school level and in the undergraduate colleges, teachers can perform an outstanding service to students and the profession if they actively encourage young people who possess intelligence and other characteristics which may lead to success in teaching, to consider teaching as their career."

SECTION C

SELECTION

Selection of Teachers a Continuous Process. The process of teacher selection has to be regarded as a continuous process rather than as a procedure that is adopted at certain fixed points, such as, at the time of admission to a teachers' college or at the time of appointment of a candidate to a teaching post. To get the highest possible quality of teachers it is necessary to be constantly looking out for and encouraging the most promising persons to join, continue in and seek promotion in the teaching profession as well as to be weeding out those who prove themselves to be definitely unsuited for the work. At all stages of the selective process, the attempt has to be made to find the potential leaders, the truly creative personalities, who will be expected, sooner or later, to play a major role in education, and to provide them with the necessary training and experience for assuming such a role.

Four Levels of the Selective Process : We conceive of the selective process as operating at four levels :—

- (i) Initial selection of candidates for training.
- (ii) Selection during the period of training.
- (iii) Selection during the period of probation as a teacher.
- (iv) Selection of serving teachers for promotion to higher grade of service.

We believe that adequate selective procedures should operate at each of these levels if a high quality of teaching personnel is sought to be maintained and if a high status of the teaching profession is sought to be acquired.

SELECTION OF CANDIDATES FOR TRAINING

19. Care in Initial Selection. *We recommend the maximum possible care in the initial selection of candidates for training.*

We have stressed in the section on the *Recruitment of Teachers* the need to increase the supply of candidates for teaching if the profession is to be upgraded through a good initial selection. We cannot overemphasize this aspect of the selective procedure. Only if there is a good supply of candidates for training is it at all possible to make any useful selection.

Assuming that there is an adequate supply of candidates—adequate qualitatively as well as quantitatively—it becomes the responsibility of teachers' colleges, in their selection of trainees, to keep in mind the standards which the schools must maintain if they are to do a satisfactory job.

Criteria for Selection. We feel that a consideration of the following criteria will enable teachers' colleges to make a good initial selection of candidates for training.

(i) **The personal qualities required for the work of teaching, including sound mental health.** The best existing method for judging a candidate's personality is, in our opinion, the interview intelligently conducted. The interview is sometimes supplemented by tests of personality ; but in India a great deal of research needs to be done for the development of adequate tests of personality. We do not advise the application of personality tests prepared in other countries against social backgrounds that are different from the Indian. One variation of the interview technique that we found to have been successfully tried in a training college in India as a part of the selection procedure, in addition to the regular interview, is the group discussion.

(ii) **Interest in the teaching profession.** This again can be judged by a well planned interview ; but carefully prepared interest inventories can also be very useful, and teachers' colleges should be encouraged to experiment with the construction and use of such inventories. Besides indicating interest in the teaching profession, interest inventories, if prepared for a more general purpose, can also indicate the candidate's wider interests in the fields of music, art, sports, etc.

(iii) **Academic background.** (As indicated by the cultural level attained by the candidate, his intellectual ability, and his knowledge of the subjects which he feels himself to be qualified to teach). Whereas intellectual ability and knowledge of special subject areas can best be judged by tests of intelligence and attainment respectively, the general cultural background of the candidates can be judged from a good interview supplemented by a questionnaire or an inventory.

(iv) **Verbal facility.** The ability to express himself clearly is a necessary quality in a teacher. It can be judged during the interview, supplemented, if necessary, by a written test.

(v) **Special talent** By this is meant ability in some special field, such as art, music, or athletics, outside the field in which the teacher proposes to teach.

(vi) **Physical Fitness.** If a full medical examination is not possible at the time of admission, a workable procedure is to have a brief physical examination to rule out cases of obvious physical disqualification and to have the medical examination as soon as possible thereafter.

(vii) **Experience of social service.** We feel that actual experience of social service, or even interest in such service, may be regarded as an additional qualification for teaching.

20. **Selection of Trainees by Training Colleges.** We recommend that the selection of candidates for training be conducted by the training colleges themselves,

Representatives of state departments of education may be called upon to assist in the selection ; but we regard as undesirable the practice of selection of candidates for training by the state departments. We suggest that heads of schools, specially of the practising schools, be associated with the initial selection of trainees.

21. Experience of Teaching Prior to Training. *We have carefully considered the practice of requiring candidates for training to have had experience of actual teaching prior to applying for admission. We do not recommend this practice if only because it encourages the employment by schools of untrained teachers. We recommend, however, a short term of "apprentice" training, that is, of giving assistance in schools under the close supervision of an experienced and trained teacher.*

22. Selection of Teachers for the Occupational and Vocational Fields. *It often happens that in the selection of teachers to teach in vocational and technical schools, the emphasis is all on the technical qualification of the candidates. We regard the criterion of personal qualification to be equally important and recommend that it be given equal emphasis. We would also lay great emphasis upon experience in a particular vocational field, and therefore would include the co-operation of various organized groups, like industry, in the selection of trainees.*

23. Selection of Teachers of Crafts. *In the field of the crafts (industrial arts) we see the possibility of two different ways to meet the question, and recommend experimentation with both to determine the value of each.*

One would be to select good craftsmen and give them an adequate training in teaching at a teacher training institution. The second way we saw at the Fitchburg Teachers' College in Massachusetts, U. S. A.—namely, to select candidates possessing a special aptitude for the industrial arts and to give them a relatively lengthy course—it was four years at Fitchburg—which combines training in a special craft with training for teaching.

SELECTION DURING TRAINING

24. Need for Stricter Standard of Evaluation. *If selection is to be regarded as a continuous process, as we think it should be, the next stage is during the period of training. It is the common experience of teacher educators that, even with the greatest care exercised during the selection at the time of admission, there remain important aspects of the personality and potential professional quality of a teacher which cannot be properly evaluated at that point. An example of one such trait is seriousness of purpose. Another quality that is extremely difficult to recognise at the time of admission is co-operativeness. Such traits begin to show themselves only in the day to day work of the student teacher and especially in his relations with his pupils, his colleagues and his teachers ; and one of the major functions of a training college is to help its students in developing wholesome personalities, especially those traits that have a special significance*

for the work of teaching. But it can and does happen that some young men and women, albeit a small minority, come to the training college with undesirable traits so deeply ingrained in them that little or no improvement can be achieved within the short period of teacher preparation, even with a well organized programme of guidance. Then, there are special qualities or gifts which go to make up that complex ability that is commonly called teaching ability and which reveal themselves best in actual teaching situations. Some student teachers may be naturally so deficient in one or other of these qualities that they cannot reasonably be expected to become successful teachers. It then becomes the duty of the training college to discourage such students from continuing with their course of teacher preparation.

We recommend that training colleges should enforce stricter standards of evaluation of the teaching ability as well as of the personal fitness of their students for the teaching profession, and that there should be a regular and timely weeding of candidates who are found to be really unsuitable for teaching.

SELECTION DURING PROBATIONARY YEARS OF TEACHING

25. Supervision and Guidance during Probation. The fact that a student has undergone a course of training and passed the required tests does not necessarily mean that he or she will be a good, or even a competent, teacher. The acid test is in the classroom under normal conditions of service and over a considerable period of time.

We recommend that during at least the first year of service, and preferably during two years, the teacher should be regarded as on probation only, and not as a fully qualified teacher. Probation should not be merely a formality; the novice should be the special responsibility of an experienced colleague, and of the head, who should supervise his work and give him guidance and help. Should it become clear to them that, despite their assistance, the young teacher is not making good they have to decide whether further remedial measures are likely to meet the situation or whether he (or she) should be advised to leave the profession.

Many a young teacher who makes a bad or indifferent start can be guided to competency, or better, by being given special assistance during the initial months of service. In England, for example, many emergency-trained teachers were greatly helped by week-end conferences, organized in some cases by the colleges at which they had been trained, in others by their local education authorities, at which they could discuss their disciplinary and teaching difficulties with experienced and sympathetic teachers, college tutors and educational administrators. Similar facilities are today offered by some colleges and authorities to young teachers who have passed through a normal course of training.

English emergency-trained teachers were required to undertake part-time study throughout their two-year period of probation. This idea is well worth considering, especially for non-graduate teachers who enter the profession at an early age.

SELECTION FOR PROMOTION

26. **The Need for Adequate Evaluation Procedures.** English and American thought and practice differ about training courses for promotion. The English do not believe in them; they try to select what appears to them to be the best man or woman—on personal as well as professional grounds—for the post they wish to fill, and assume that the person of their choice will rise successfully to the demands of the new job. The Americans, on the other hand, take the view that promotion implies a job involving new elements and they believe in training a person to understand and handle these elements before entrusting him with the responsibility of coping with them in service conditions. In New York State, for example, teachers may not be appointed to headships and other administrative posts without having become certified.

We think that in any educational system there ought to be a careful evaluation of fitness for posts of greater responsibility, and that training courses ought at least to be offered to teachers seeking promotion. We feel these measures to be especially necessary where the general quality of the teaching profession is not high and it is desired to raise it substantially.

We, therefore, recommend that the States should consider establishing evaluation procedures for administrative posts in or outside the school. We further recommend that the States consider providing courses and other means of preparation for teachers aspiring to such posts.

SECTION D

TRAINING

In our opinion, the improvement of existing teacher training programmes deserves high priority in all plans of education. Over and above the fact that there is inadequate provision for teacher training the main defects in the existing system of teacher training appear to be—

- (i) lack of integration in programmes of training teachers for different levels;
- (ii) insufficient co-ordination between the work done in training institutions and in schools;
- (iii) inadequate conception of the role of training institutions for different levels and consequent inadequate staffing and equipment;
- (iv) the domination of an external examination and its cramping effect on training programmes;

- (v) inadequate provision for the training of certain types of teachers, viz, of Indian languages ; of technical and other special subject such as agriculture, home science and commercial subjects ; of craft ; of art and music ; of physical education.

Our suggestions on teacher training will deal mainly with ways and means of removing such defects with a view to making teacher training programmes effective.

Adequate Provision of Teacher Training : The first necessity is adequate provision for training teachers to meet the growing needs of schools. We have already recommended, in the section on *Recruitment*, the need for carefully calculated annual estimates of teacher requirements based on present and potential needs, during a five-year period in advance. In these estimates, the need for different categories and types of teachers should be analysed and the provision for teacher training should be linked up with these estimates in such a manner that there is no lag between the need and the provision. Government, universities and private bodies should make a joint effort to meet the need.

27. **Teacher Training for Different Levels.** It is necessary that teacher training should be viewed as an integral process, with proper articulation in the training of teachers for the different school stages. At present, this articulation is lacking even in the training of undergraduate and graduate teachers for secondary schools. This appears to be primarily due to one type of training being under the state departments of education and the other under universities, with no efforts being made to co-ordinate the two.

We recommend that efforts should be made to establish articulation in the training of teachers for the different school stages.

28. **Control of Teacher Training.** In this connection the fundamental question is the control of the training programmes of undergraduates and graduates. The Commission recommends (p. 166) that "graduate training being a post-graduate qualification should come under the University and when there are Universities carrying on this function, all graduates should be trained in institutions which are affiliated to the Universities, and submit to tests conducted by the University." In their opinion (p. 166) the other type of teacher training institutions, namely, those which train undergraduates, should be under the control of a separate board appointed for this purpose and neither under the department of education nor under a university.

We agree that the influence of the university in the training of graduates is beneficial by way of broadening the spirit and the basis of teacher training and maintaining standards. On the other hand, it must be remembered that teachers are being trained for work in schools the policy of which is determined by the general public and the department of education. If the determination of the policy of teacher training is the function of one body and the determination of the policy of the schools of another, there is likely to be a rift or a gap between the two

which may result in training being not a real preparation for work in the schools. It is therefore desirable that for graduate as well as undergraduate training the control of teacher training should rest with a body which will represent the university, the department of education, the training colleges, the schools and the public, in short, all concerned with schools and school teachers.

The Commission has recommended the establishment of a Board for Teacher Training Institutions which will supervise and guide the large number of centres where the training of undergraduate teachers will be carried on and which will lay down the conditions necessary for their proper training. Graduate training, according to their suggestion, will continue to be under the universities, but the board will be empowered to suggest for the consideration of the universities any improvements that may be needed in the graduate training programme.

We recommend, in the first place, that all training of teachers be brought under the same authority which will deal with it as an integral process, and, in the second, that active co-operation be established between the university, the training colleges, the department of education and the schools in the matter of all teacher training.

To preserve the influence of the university in graduate teacher training, to extend it to undergraduate teacher training and yet to combine it more effectively with the authority and the organizations which run, guide or supervise secondary schools, we feel that a machinery like the Area Training Organizations in England and Wales would be a practical solution. The Area Training Organizations vary in structure, but they are all concerned with integrating the facilities in their areas for training teachers, to bring together for a variety of purposes the staffs and students of the institutions included in the organizations, and to advance education by such means as the provision of courses and conferences for serving teachers, research, etc. A description of these A. T. O.'s will not be out of place here.

Area Training Organizations in England & Wales. The training of all teachers for service in publicly maintained and grant-aided schools in England and Wales is the responsibility of eighteen Area Training Organizations. An A. T. O. comprises all the teacher training establishments recognized by the Ministry of Education within a given geographical area around a university city, and is centred upon that city. It is responsible for in-service as well as initial training, and is further charged to provide a centre, suitably equipped with conference rooms, library, and so on, for the benefit of all teachers in the public service within its area, and to initiate and encourage research, investigations conferences and courses on educational matters.

All A. T. O.'s except three (shortly to be reduced to two) are administratively the responsibility of the university or university college in their area, and the expenditure on the A. T. O. is included in the grant made to the university by the British Treasury through the Universities Grants Committee. The university or university college

appoints a Delegacy (as for all other of its faculties) whose business it is to watch over the working of the A. T. O. and present periodic reports upon this to the university Senate—again, precisely like any other Delegacy.

All acts of policy recommended by the Governing Body of the A. T. O. have to be confirmed by the Senate, or, in the case of recommendations involving finance, by the university Court or Council. It is tacitly assumed, and so far as we know has always been the case, that this approval is purely formal.

Subject to the above proviso, the direction and control of an A.T.O. is vested in a Board of Governors representative of all parties concerned with the training of teachers within the area: the University, or University College, the training establishments which are constituent members of the A. T. O., the Local Education Authorities whose areas are concerned (an L. E. A. may be represented on more than one A. T. O.), and either the major professional associations of teachers or the schools within the area. The administrative structures of the A. T. O.'s vary in detail but two elements under the direction of the Governing Body of the A. T. O. are constant: the Professional Board consisting of the principals of the constituent training establishments and representatives of the university, and of the L. E. A.'s; and the Boards of Studies—one for each subject—on which sit authorities on the various subjects appointed by the training establishments and one or two university representatives.

The function of the Boards of Studies is to draw up and revise curricula, that of the Professional Board to correlate standards and programmes, and generally, to survey the policy for the areas. Within the framework of area policy, every constituent training establishment enjoys the utmost freedom in respect of admissions, programmes, curricula, methods and examinations or other forms of testing. The A.T.O. is responsible for examining students and recommending them to the Ministry of Education for recognition as qualified teachers. Precisely the same recognition is accorded to non-graduates as to graduates; all emerge from their training as "qualified teachers".

It is assumed, and has always been the case, that the Ministry of Education's approval of the A. T. O.'s recommendations of students for "qualified teacher" status will be purely formal.

So that standards throughout England and Wales shall be comparable, there is a Standing Joint Conference of A. T. O.'s whose function it is periodically to review this matter. An additional aid to keeping standards comparable is the constant interflow, by invitation, between the areas, of external examiners and assessors. It should be noted that, apart from the formal approval of students as "qualified teachers", the Ministry of Education has no part in the control and direction of teacher training. Representatives of the Ministry (usually H. M.'s Inspectors) do occasionally, by invitation, sit in on meetings of Professional Boards or Boards of Studies, but as guests whose advice is sought,

29. **Establishment of Organizations like the A. T. O.'s.** We feel that the establishment in India of organizations similar to the A. T. O.'s which will be fully representative of all appropriate interests and which will function within the orbit of a university or universities will put all teacher training on a stable basis, on the one hand, and will link it up with schools effectively, on the other.

Three alternatives appear possible and the individual states and universities might consider the feasibility of adopting one of these.

- (i) There should be one A. T. O. connected with each affiliating university in a State and it should comprise all teacher training institutions within the geographical area over which the jurisdiction of the university extends. This would mean the existence of more than one A. T. O. in a State if the number of universities in a State is more than one. The A. T. O.'s should be composed of all appropriate interests.
- (ii) The second alternative would be to have one A. T. O. in each State irrespective of the number of universities in the state with the different universities agreeing to combine for the purpose. These would comprise all the teacher training institutions within a State and would again be composed of all appropriate interests.
- (iii) The third alternative would be to make the A. T. O.'s into independent bodies, created by law, and composed of appropriate interests including the universities.

The membership of the A. T. O. will depend on which of the three alternatives is accepted. All that is important is that the university, the department of education, training institutions, Schools and teachers' organizations will all be represented.

The functions of an A. T. O. will be —

- (i) to frame schemes and syllabuses for the training of graduate and undergraduate teachers and to revise them as and when necessary ;
- (ii) to draw up conditions for the recognition of training institutions and to supervise and guide their work ;
- (iii) to draw up schemes of examinations and other means of evaluation ;
- (iv) to deal with all matters pertaining to teacher training ;
- (v) to provide an educational centre and a library open to all teachers and other people interested in education in the area ;
- (vi) to provide facilities for in-service training ;
- (vii) to initiate, undertake and encourage educational research, investigations and experiments.

We recommend for the consideration of State departments of education and universities the possibility of setting up area training organizations which will integrate, control and supervise all training of teachers in their respective areas.

30. The Functions of Training Institutions. In the light of this discussion, the role and functions of training institutions can be seen clearly. A fully developed training institution has three main functions—

- (i) the training of teachers—initial and in-service ;
- (ii) service to schools and the community ;
- (iii) research and experimentation.

The first of these functions is paramount, but the other two functions are equally necessary and, if fulfilled adequately, will enable the training institutions to carry out its first and primary function more effectively. It is necessary, therefore, that a training institution should make every possible effort to develop its resources in personnel, organization and equipment to the point where it can effectively perform the other functions of service and research in addition to its function of training teachers.

The training institutions hold the major key to the solution of many problems connected with the improvement of education. Theirs is the opportunity and the responsibility not only for developing educational leadership but also for providing leadership. They must be ahead of present needs and must not only concern themselves with providing the kind of training and service required to help the schools of today, as they are, but must also envisage the needs of the schools of tomorrow, as they should be.

We recommend that training institutions, in addition to their obvious task of preparing teachers, devote their efforts also to service to the schools and the community and to research and experimentation in education.

That leads us to the question of the staffing and equipment of training institutions.

31. Qualifications of Staffs of Training Institutions. To take up the question of staffing first, we believe that the greatest possible care needs to be taken in the selection of the staff of the training institution which, more than everything else, determines the quality of the training that can be given by the institution.

We recommend that in staffing training institutions attention be paid to a candidate's academic background, his professional preparation and experience, his personal qualities and his competence in some field of co-curricular activities.

Academic and Professional Qualifications. The minimum qualifications for the staff of a graduate institution should be (i) a second class Bachelor's degree and a second class Master's degree ; (ii) a Master

32. Adequate Strength of Staff. If training colleges are to perform effectively their triple function of teacher training, service and research, they need to be adequately staffed both in quality and in numbers. The vast majority of training colleges in India today are barely staffed for fulfilling the first function of teacher training; and it is asking too much to expect them to conduct research and to render other forms of service. At present, it often happens that when the number of courses conducted by a college is increased, it does not receive the needed addition to its staff. The staffing should keep pace with added responsibilities.

In view of the increasing responsibilities of training colleges we recommend a more liberal staffing policy.

We recognize that additional teachers for the training colleges will be drawn from the schools for the most part, and that to this extent schools may lose some of their best teachers. We believe, however, that such loss would be merely temporary for any school and, in the long run, this policy will be of advantage to the school as well as to the college.

33. Salaries of Training College Teachers. It is a common practice for teachers in secondary training colleges to be recruited on the same initial salary as teachers in arts and science colleges. A large number of persons recruited to teach in training colleges possess, at the time of recruitment, higher academic qualifications than lecturers recruited to arts and science colleges. In addition to a Master's degree in arts or science they possess a degree in education (B.T., B.Ed. or even M. Ed.). They have also spent some time teaching in school or in college.

We recommend that training college teachers because of their higher qualifications be given a higher initial salary than other college teachers.

34. Parity of Status for Teachers of Arts, Crafts, Music and Physical Education. In most training colleges in India teachers of art, crafts, music and physical education receive a lower salary grade than other members of the teaching staff. We disagree with this practice because we regard art, crafts, music and physical education as on a par with other subjects and believe that teachers of these subjects should not be discriminated against.

We, therefore, recommend that teachers of art, crafts, music and physical education on the staffs of training colleges should receive the same grade of salary as other teachers of comparable qualifications. This will involve the working out of a scheme of equivalent qualifications.

35. Equipment. A very large proportion of training institutions in this country are inadequately equipped to function effectively. This is more true of institutions preparing primary and middle school teachers than of institutions preparing teachers for secondary schools. We

consider the following items of equipment as essential for a training institution :—

- (i) A select, up-to-date and growing library of books of general and professional interest with a good reference section as well as a section of suitable school texts. We do not favour the prescription of textbooks for use in training colleges, and therefore would not recommend the practice of having too many copies of the same book. In every State some select training institutions may be more liberally equipped with books on pedagogy which may be made available on loan to the other institutions.
- (ii) At least a dozen selected journals, both Indian and foreign, on education and psychology, as well as some journals of general interest.
- (iii) An adequate collection of tests and testing material.
- (iv) Audio-visual apparatus : at least one cine-projector, one film-strip projector, an epidiascope, and a linguaphone.
- (v) An adequate collection of maps, charts, pictures, models and other teaching aids.
- (vi) Well-equipped art and craft rooms.
- (vii) A science laboratory adequately equipped to permit the conduct of experiments by student teachers.
- (viii) An assembly hall fitted with a proper stage and some stage properties to enable student teachers to conduct their various co-curricular activities.
- (ix) Adequate equipment for physical education activities and games.

36. **Residential Training Colleges.** Our observations both in India and in the other countries visited have confirmed us in the belief that residential training institutions offer a much better opportunity for the social education of teachers than do day institutions, not only because of their ampler and richer provision of co-curricular activities and opportunities for community service but also because of the closer personal relationship between the faculty and the students that is possible in such institutions. The Commission has emphasized the first of these two advantages of a residential institution ; we wish to lay an equal emphasis on the second.

Therefore, while we endorse the Commission's recommendation (Rec. 25, p. 176) that training colleges should provide adequate residential facilities for their trainees, we further recommend that residential facilities should also be provided for all members of the teaching staff on the premises of training colleges.

Most basic training institutions provide such facilities today with great benefit to their students. We should like to see the same facilities provided by the other training institutions.

INITIAL TRAINING

37. Admission and Tuition Fees. We agree with the Commission's recommendation (Rec. 24, p. 176) that no fees should be charged in training colleges, that teachers who are in service should be paid their full salary during the period of training, and that other trainees not entitled to receive a salary should be given suitable stipends by the state.

We feel that a note of caution is necessary regarding some possible implications of the first part of the recommendation. We noted on our tour in India that, generally speaking, in the States which allowed tuition fees to be charged there was a sufficient number of training colleges, many of them private, to cope with the present needs for trained teachers; whereas in States where no tuition fees were charged, the existing institutions (which, as a rule, were government colleges) were totally inadequate to cope with the needs and so many untrained teachers continued to work in the schools. If the abolition of tuition fees in training colleges is to lead to limiting the facilities for training, it would considerably hamper the expansion of secondary education and would, by itself, be a retrograde step. We, therefore, urge that the States assume the responsibility of ensuring that sufficient training facilities exist to cope with the growing need. This could be done by the States (i) establishing more training colleges, (ii) expanding the existing ones by a proportionate increase in the staff and equipment and (iii) giving full grants to private training colleges so that they may be enabled to continue to function without a fee income.

Another problem that deserves attention is the relative proportions of untrained teachers already in service and of fresh graduates to be admitted to training colleges. We found that in the States where there were a number of untrained teachers working in the schools, the training colleges selected almost all their students from among these, and even able fresh graduates had no chance of being selected for training. In our opinion it is as essential for the efficiency of the teaching profession that enthusiastic young men and women should be trained as it is that untrained teachers already in service should be given opportunities for early training.

To meet the situation, we recommend that training facilities be expanded to provide adequate scope for training capable fresh graduates needed in the profession and that programmes of in-service training leading to equivalent qualifications be set up for untrained teachers working in the schools.

Courses of Study. We agree with the Commission's recommendation that for the present the duration of the teacher training course should be two years in the case of undergraduates and one year in the case

of graduates. We think, however, that the period of training for both categories of teachers should be extended as circumstances permit.

The courses of study should comprise :—

- (i) Theory ;
- (ii) Practice Teaching ; and
- (iii) Other Practical Activities.

38. Preparation for the Immediate Work of Teaching. We recommend that the initial course of training should be so framed as to prepare the student adequately for the immediate work of teaching.

The course in theory should be so planned that along with giving the student a grounding in the philosophy, the history and the science of education, it forms a proper basis for the practice of teaching. This is especially significant in connection with subjects like educational psychology, experimental psychology and history of education in India. The course in educational psychology should emphasize the practical and specifically educational aspects, such as learning, social psychology, mental hygiene, and other classroom applications of psychology. We feel that the study of the history of education, as a separate subject, may be optional at the graduate as well as the undergraduate level, intended only for those especially interested in it. For the majority of students, it would serve their purpose if they studied the development of educational thought and the growth of the Indian educational system in broad outlines as part of the current problems of education in India. Similarly, experimental psychology as a separate course may be taken as an optional subject by those who are especially interested in that aspect of psychology.

With regard to the school subjects, we suggest that undergraduates who take a two years' course of training should study these subjects along with the methods of teaching them. In the case of graduates, it should be ensured that they have a sound knowledge of the subjects they offer for teaching. It may be necessary for them to make a further study of subjects like social studies or geography which may not figure in the university curriculum.

39. Emphasis on practicable Techniques and Methods. We recommend that training institutions should be careful not to advocate methods and techniques of teaching that are impracticable and unrealistic.

The methods advocated by them should be capable of being used in the day to day work of the schools. The right kind of practice teaching, the use of a demonstration school and the active participation of the training college staff in the work of the school are some of the possible means of making the teaching of methods practicable and realistic. The course in methods should explain and demonstrate principles of good methodology and should aim at giving the student

teacher a wide variety of skills and techniques. The student should be left free to develop his own methods, suited to his abilities and his personality. Insistence on the use of uniform or stereotyped methods is not in keeping with the concept of creative teaching.

40. Practice Teaching. *We see the need for some continuity in practice teaching and recommend the system of block practice with proper arrangements for supervision and guidance.*

Students should get sufficient practice in teaching as part of their training. Practice teaching should be arranged in good secondary schools. It should follow a preliminary period of observation of the work of experienced teachers along with some detailed child study. It should be as much on the lines of normal teaching work as possible. The practice of requiring a set number of lessons to be given by each trainee is not calculated to give experience of work under normal conditions. Practice teaching should be continuous, extending over a period of ten to twelve weeks at least, the student teacher being expected to carry approximately half the load of a regular teacher. During the period he should have opportunities for participating in the life of the school, helping with co-curricular activities, taking part in staff conferences, etc. In the United Kingdom and the United States we saw that in most instances students under training identified themselves with the regular staff of the school during the period of practice teaching and were entrusted with responsibilities of all kinds by the school. In Denmark, the student teacher works as an apprentice to a permanent teacher and teaches under his guidance.

Collaboration of Schools with Training Institutions. In the preparation of teachers it is essential that schools should collaborate with training institutions. Without the active co-operation of schools in the matter of guidance and supervision as well as of provision of facilities for practice teaching, no training programme can be fully effective. Schools should realize that they are doing a service to themselves by co-operating with training institutions in the preparation of teachers whose services they will subsequently use ; and state departments of education should do all in their power to help schools understand their responsibilities in this matter. With the establishment of area training organizations we expect that such understanding will be more easily achieved.

41. Value of Demonstration Schools. *We believe that demonstration or laboratory schools are valuable in teacher training, and recommend that training institutions be encouraged to organize and conduct such schools where, among other things, experiments are made in curriculum construction and progressive methods of teaching are used. Such demonstration schools should not be fettered by rules and regulations externally imposed but should be given freedom in matters of methods and curricula.*

In its demonstration school a training institution could show how the special techniques of teaching advocated by it can be put into practice. The school would be used as a demonstration and observation

centre rather than as a practising school. Besides observing the work of regular teachers, student teachers could assist in remedial work, in testing programmes and in other work undertaken by the school. The school should be staffed with teachers with a progressive outlook and the training college staff should be actively associated with it, not merely in directing its work but in participating in it. Such schools could also become centres of observation for teachers in service who could be shown their methods and facilities.

42. Other Practical Activities. *We recommend that training institutions expand their programmes of practical training to include other activities beside actual classroom teaching which teachers will be called upon to perform as part of their work.*

Besides practice teaching a great deal of other types of practical work must find a place in the training programme if it is to be a real preparation for the many-sided work that a trained teacher will be called upon to do. The programme of the practical work can very profitably include the following types of activities :

- (i) guidance and counselling—preparation of cumulative record cards ;
- (ii) library work ;
- (iii) preparation and administration of new-type tests :
- (iv) preparation of teaching aids—charts, friezes, models, roll-up blackboards, etc.,
- (v) a craft ;
- (vi) use of audio-visual aids ;
- (vii) practical aspects of health, citizenship and physical education ;
- (viii) supervision and organization of co-curricular activities.

In view of the importance of co-curricular activities in schools, we wish to deal with the question in greater detail.

The Place of Co-Curricular Activities. If co-curricular activities are to find a proper place in the secondary school curriculum they should find the same proper place in the curriculum of the training college. Student teachers need to be provided with opportunities for participation in co-curricular activities, and, what is still more important, they have to be helped to acquire the knowledge and the ability to guide and direct such activities in school when they become teachers. This means that they will need specific instruction and direction in the organization and conduct of such activities. For this reason we feel that the co-curricular programme of a training institution cannot be left entirely to the student body. However, great care has to be exercised to see that

the direction given by the faculty is not overdone and that the student teachers are not denied opportunities of helping themselves whenever and to the maximum extent they can. If the educational and pedagogical values of such a programme are to be stressed, it has to be a carefully planned programme, prepared well in advance, and providing as much variety and choice as possible to cater to the individual interests and talents of the students. A recent survey of the co-curricular activities which are being variously attempted in training colleges in India produced the following list of activities :—

- (i) debates, lectures, symposia, and study circles ;
- (ii) mock courts, mock parliaments and brains trusts ;
- (iii) weekly wall magazine, periodical bulletin or newsletter, and annual magazine ;
- (iv) dramatics and elocution ;
- (v) *mushairas* and *kavi sammelans* ;
- (vi) hobbies, like photography and painting ;
- (vii) gardening ;
- (viii) sports and games (indoor as well as outdoor) ;
- (ix) scouting (or roving) and guiding ;
- (x) camps ;
- (xi) excursions, educational visits, picnics and hikes, socials and parties ;
- (xii) observance of national days (like Independence Day and Republic Day) ;
- (xiii) birthdays of great men, anniversaries, etc. ;
- (xiv) social service in different forms ;
- (xv) Red Cross activities.

This is a fairly exhaustive list of activities and, obviously no single institution would be able, in a year's course, to provide for all of them. However, an effort should be made to provide for as large a number as possible to enable every student teacher to obtain adequate opportunities for participation. At any rate there are certain activities in this list which, because of their special educational values, no teachers' college could well ignore. The celebration of festivals and the observance of national days belong to one such category. They are extremely valuable for developing in our teachers a feeling of national solidarity and a sense of unity in diversity. Dramatics and concerts belong to another such category, and they have the special value of providing the best possible

opportunities for co-operative endeavour. Hobbies like photography and painting belong to a third category of activities which must be specially encouraged ; they provide useful and enjoyable forms of leisure time occupation. It is also possible that some teachers' colleges would need to include in their programme other activities which are not given in the above list but which have a local significance or which minister to the special needs of the local community.

Training in Co-curricular Activities. In addition to the provision of a rich programme of co-curricular activities, the Commission has recommended (p. 169) that "every student teacher should have special training in one or other of the co-curricular activities." In endorsing this recommendation we suggest that short courses be provided in every training college for student teachers with special aptitudes in any of the co-curricular activities. Such courses would prepare them for planning and conducting these activities which form a necessary part of citizenship education in schools.

The Place of Crafts. As regards crafts, we are of the opinion that a craft should be a compulsory subject in the two years' course of training for undergraduates, even though all of them may not be required to teach a craft in school. In the case of graduates we feel that it will not normally be possible to achieve significant skill in a craft during a year's course of training which is otherwise quite full. However, because of the value of manual work we consider that craftwork in some form is desirable at this stage too, even if it largely takes the form of preparing models and other teaching aids in connection with work in other fields of the curriculum.

Developing the Aesthetic Sense. In the section on the *Curriculum* later in this report, we refer to one sad feature of the vast majority of schools in India,—namely, the lack of a sense of beauty. We found little conscious effort on the part of teachers and school authorities to introduce into their schools an atmosphere of warmth and beauty. We should here like to draw the special attention of training institutions to their responsibility in the matter and to suggest to them the inclusion of school and classroom decoration as a practical activity for student teachers. One item that could very profitably be included in the training college syllabus in art and craft is the preparation of pictures, plaques, pottery, sculpture and other materials which can serve as classroom decorations.

Student teachers should be helped to acquire a keen aesthetic sense, which not only leads them to strive actively for order and beauty in their schools and classrooms but also to inculcate in their pupils an awareness and an appreciation of the beautiful in the things they see around them. But to be able to achieve this objective one thing is obviously essential: the training institutions themselves should be places diffusing beauty and cheer on every side.

Need for Better Methods of Teaching and Education. A question may be asked whether a training course of this type is not likely to be too heavy. We would like to point out that the heaviness of the course

depends not so much on the comprehensiveness of the curriculum as on (i) the methods used during training and (ii) the nature of the examination.

43. Methods involving Student Participation. *We recommend a greater use by training institutions of teaching methods involving active participation by students.*

Training institutions should avoid using spoon-feeding methods which treat the student as a passive recipient and which lead to a lot of cramming. Students must be stimulated to read and study critically and to think for themselves. All the work should be directed to this end. Lectures should be few and thought provoking and should be supplemented by a systematic programme of assignments, seminars, discussions and tutorials, in which the students participate actively in discussing general problems of curriculum construction and school organisation as well as individual and common problems arising out of their practice teaching and other curricular and co-curricular work. The practice followed in some training institutions in India of getting students to review suitable books on education seems to be excellent at the graduate level. We believe that it is the responsibility of the staffs of training institutions to set an example of good teaching methods in their own methods and procedures.

44. Evaluation in Training Colleges. One of the principal factors, if not the most important factor, responsible for much of the unmeaningful work that is being done in our training colleges today is the prevalent system of examination, which dominates the work of the colleges and has a cramping effect on the initiative and spontaneity of their staffs. With the creation of area training organisations, as recommended by us, it should be possible to modify this system.

We recommend that the training institutions themselves assess the work of their students both in the theoretical studies and in the practice of teaching. They may, if they so desire, seek the assistance of external assessors for this purpose.

The A. T. O.'s would supervise the work of the colleges and see that proper standards are maintained. Such supervision would not be restricted only to the end of the training period, but would be provided at any time during the year. Advice in improving the curricular and co-curricular offerings and in maintaining standards would be the principal function of such supervision.

In the final evaluation of a student teacher's qualifications, credit should be given for the work done by him in the course of his period of training. We are of the opinion that a single terminal examination of the kind that generally exists today does not measure a candidate's ability as a teacher, especially when the major emphasis is on the written part of the examination in the theory of education. We should like to see the emphasis shifted from theory to practice; and under "practice" we should like to include, besides practice

teaching, all the other activities that form part of the programme of practical training, such as experimental work in psychology, case studies of children, the preparation of teaching aids, co-curricular activities, and seminar and tutorial work.

45. Concurrent General and Professional Education. In the United States the most common form of training for secondary school teachers is a four-year course after graduation from high school. It is a course of concurrent general and professional education leading to a degree. A course of this type has several advantages. In the first place, it permits a close integration of the teacher's general education after high school and his professional training : the study of the subjects in which the teacher is specializing to teach can be approached from the point of view of the actual needs of schools. Secondly, the length of the course gives the teacher training institutions a much longer time to impart to their students an enthusiasm for and a devotion to the profession. Then, it permits a greater flexibility for spreading out the practical aspects of the training such as child study, observation of teaching and practice teaching. What is perhaps the greatest advantage of this system is that it gives plenty of time for the student to decide whether he or she is really fitted for teaching. It also makes it easy for the teacher educator to plan a systematic programme of guidance and counselling with a view to encouraging and helping those students who have the potentialities of a good teacher and discouraging those who are lacking in such potentialities.

In view of these advantages, we recommend that experiments be conducted with courses of this nature that provide a concurrent general and professional education for secondary school teachers spread over a period of three years after the higher secondary school stage and of four years after the high school stage.

46. Types of Special Training. The training of certain types of teachers tends to be neglected in the present set-up.

We recommend that special attention be paid to the provision of the right type of professional training to i) language teachers, ii) teachers of technical and vocational subjects, iii) teachers of crafts, iv) teachers of art and music, and v) teachers of physical education. We further recommend that these teachers be trained along with teachers of other subjects.

47. Language Teachers. We should like to lay special stress on the training of language teachers, specially of teachers of Hindi and the regional languages. In the Indian situation, most children will have to learn at least two languages, and a substantial number will learn even three or four. In view of this it is essential that language teachers should be properly equipped for their job, as regards both matter and method, so that their pupils may derive the utmost benefit from their teaching and reach worthy standards of attainment without any waste of effort and energy. We noticed that language teaching received scant attention in many training colleges in India ; we also noticed that in many schools teachers were assigned to teach a language

without regard to their academic or professional qualifications in the subject. Because of the very great importance of language teaching in Indian schools, special attention needs to be given to the preparation of language teachers. Not only must training institutions be staffed with highly qualified language teachers, but they must also be adequately equipped with books and audio-visual aids.

We recommend that every training institution make specific and adequate provision for language teaching.

48. Teachers of Technical and Vocational Subjects. In our opinion teachers of these subjects need at least a year's training after graduation as do teachers of other subjects like history, geography, science and mathematics. In institution where teachers of these subjects are trained, student teachers should be able to offer their special subjects for practice teaching. This mean that schools with that particular bias should be available for practice teaching and that arrangements should be made for trained teachers in these subjects to guide the students under training and to supervise their practice teaching.

We recommend that training institutions in any convenient area share the responsibility of training teachers of technical and vocational subjects. Because of the expensive equipment and special school facilities required for such training, it would neither be possible nor advisable for every training college to provide courses in more than one or two of these subjects.

As an emergency measure to meet the urgent demand for teachers of these subjects, shorter intensive courses in teaching methods may be organized as recommended by the Commission. (Rec. 22, p. 176. See also our suggestions on in-service training in this connection).

49. Teachers of Crafts. Teachers for teaching crafts under Group C (Cf. the Commission's Report, p. 87) need to achieve greater proficiency in the craft than is evidenced at present. They should be trained along with other teachers in the two-year training colleges to which well-equipped workshops should be attached. They should be selected for training on the basis of their interest in and aptitude for craft. During their course of professional training they will learn their respective crafts along with the methods of teaching them.

Compared with the craftwork that we saw in the schools in Denmark, the United Kingdom and the United States, the standard of work in the crafts in Indian schools is low and needs to be raised considerably. We believe that the training institutions are the places where this problem has to be tackled. If teachers of crafts are to attain a high degree of craftsmanship, which is an essential qualification for their work, they must be adequately trained.

We recommend that the training of craft teachers be entrusted to competent professional craftsmen who have had an adequate course in teaching methods.

A little later in this section we have some more suggestions to offer on in-service training for craft teachers.

50. Teachers of Art and Music. At present, teachers of these subjects appear to receive very inadequate professional training. It is desirable that teachers of these subjects should receive their professional training along with teachers of other subjects and that they should be selected for admission on the basis of their skill and their qualifications in their special fields.

We recommend that in the appointment of art and music teachers on the staff of training institutions care be taken to select persons who are primarily artists and who have also had adequate training in the methodology of their subject.

51. Teachers of Physical Education. Although physical education will be a compulsory activity for all teachers in both the one-year and two-year training courses, physical education teachers will require more intensive training in their special field. At present, such training is provided mostly in special colleges or institutes of physical education.

We recommend that training for physical education teachers be provided in the regular training institution for teachers, preferably in a two-year course. To provide training of a more advanced type such as will be required by those desiring to qualify as physical instructors in training institutions or as directors or inspectors of physical education, we recommend that All-India Training Centres in Physical Education be established, as envisaged by the Commission (Rec. 11, p. 143).

Not all training institutions need provide courses for teachers on physical education. The provision should be commensurate with the need for such teachers and should be made only in those institutions which can provide the special equipment required for the purpose.

52. Teachers for Rural Areas. We have already discussed the question of recruiting teachers for the rural schools and suggested some steps for meeting the difficulties experienced today. We here offer a few suggestions for the training of rural teachers.

We recommend as a necessary first step the location of a certain proportion of all training institutions in the rural areas. We would especially recommend for these areas the type of training institutions that give concurrently a general education and a professional training.

These institutions should undertake the preparation of teachers for every school level. They should offer courses suitable for each one of the three stages: lower elementary (or primary) higher elementary (or middle), high and higher secondary. There are already a number of basic training institutions in the rural areas; and so there is no reason why institutions for the preparation of teachers for the secondary schools should not be opened too. The only difficulty that we can see is the difficulty of making available within a convenient

range an adequate number of secondary schools of the right kind for practice teaching. This difficulty can be met, however, by attaching the student teachers to suitable schools for some length of time and arranging for them to live in the villages where the schools are situated, thus also enabling them to have an active contact with the communities in which they are teaching.

The curricula of these training institutions need to be very carefully prepared in view of their special function of preparing teachers for rural schools. If one of the most essential steps in rural progress is adequate instruction in agriculture in all village schools, then the rural training institutions must provide for such training. Other forms of manual training, specially of training in the handicrafts related to agriculture such as woodwork and metal work must also find a place in the curriculum. Then, the academic studies included in the curriculum, such as language, the social studies, science and mathematics should all have a rural bias. The same bias should be evinced in the co-curricular activities of the student teachers. Encouragement should be given to the formation of societies and clubs similar to those found in rural institutions in other countries like the Young Farmers' Club, the Community Welfare Association, the Village Games Club and the Rural Home-makers' Club. In short, the entire curriculum of the rural training institutions should reflect the life of people in the rural areas.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

Periodic in-service training is as necessary for the teacher as pre-service training. We agree with the Commission's recommendation (Rec. 22, p. 176) that "The training colleges should, as a normal part of their work, arrange refresher courses, short intensive courses in special subjects, practical training in workshop and professional conferences."

In-service training will be one of the functions of the area training organizations proposed by us. When these organizations come into being, in-service training programmes will necessarily imply the collaboration of state departments of education, school teachers' organizations and training institutions. Without such collaboration no in-service training programme can be of much practical value.

If training institutions are to make proper provision for in-service training, they must be adequately staffed and members of their staffs who devote their vacations or their evenings to such courses must be adequately remunerated. Both in the United Kingdom and in the United States it is the practice for teachers of education who conduct evening or summer courses to be adequately remunerated.

The main objects of in-service training courses will be to refresh the teacher's knowledge, to make him aware of new ideas and practices and to enrich his personal and professional experience. Seminars, study circles, and group discussions are techniques that can be usefully employed in courses of this kind. They will be much more valuable than lectures. Teachers attending such courses will profit by any

opportunity provided for them to consult the latest books and magazines and to see new teaching aids. A well organized library and exhibition will be a valuable adjunct to any such course.

The staff for an in-service training course should be carefully selected, attention being paid especially to their personal qualities and their professional experience. They should be capable of making an effective use of the seminar and discussion techniques since these will be the chief methods used in such courses.

53. Special In-Service Training Courses. If the recommendations of the Secondary Education Commission in respect of the curriculum are to be implemented, special in-service training programmes will be necessary at once for (i) teachers of crafts under Group C, and (ii) teachers of crafts and technical subjects under Group D.

We recommend that for training teachers in service to teach crafts under Group 'C' special short term courses be organized. These may be arranged either in teacher training or technical institutions or at special centres set up for the purpose. For teachers of technical, vocational and other special subjects, who are already in service but who have not been trained, we recommend short intensive courses in the theory and practice of education.

In addition, we would like to suggest that for better teaching of the crafts in the schools master craftsmen from the neighbourhood should be invited to set up their shops on the premises of the schools to serve as models both to the pupils and to the trained craft teachers.

POST-GRADUATE COURSES

54. Need for Wide Variety of Post-Graduate Courses. Besides special intensive courses and regular refresher courses there is need also for systematic post-graduate work as part of in-service training.

In view of the highly specialized personnel in the field of education that will be required in increasing numbers, we recommend that training colleges organize post-graduate courses in a wide variety of specialized fields.

We are not thinking so much of the Master of Education course which will remain a general course in education on a higher level than the first course for secondary teachers. We are thinking more of courses leading to a diploma in a special field like administration, vocational guidance, mental hygiene and child guidance, audio-visual education, teacher education, social education or mental measurements.

We envisage the possibility of training colleges inviting experts in these various fields to assist them in conducting some of these courses.

In this connection, we wish to refer more at length to educational administration. In our opinion, an educational administrator needs a specialized training for his job. Such training should be both theoretical

and practical. Among other things, an educational administrator needs to know the educational legislation of his own State as well as of the Centre. He needs to know the administrative set-up of education in his state. He needs to know the several responsibilities for education of the Centre, the State and the local bodies, as also the role of private enterprise, both actual and potential in education. He needs to have technical knowledge in such special fields as educational finance, the construction of school buildings, and school equipment. He needs to be generally aware of the problems of organization and administration of elementary, secondary and collegiate education, but also to have a special insight into the problems of that stage of education with which he is most directly concerned. He must know how to supervise schools and be able to guide and assist schools in developing curricula, keeping records of pupils, etc. Not all this knowledge can be acquired through theoretical studies alone ; much of it will have to be acquired through practical experience. Hence, in the training of educational administrators, there should be specific provision for work as probationers under experienced administrative officers.

55. The M. Ed. Course. *We recommend that in the Master of Education course there should be provision for some original research or experimentation in education. We recommend also the practice followed in some Indian Universities of including in the Master of Education course a paper on the methodology of educational research.*

If one of the purposes of the Master of Education course is, as the Commission says (p. 172), "to cultivate aptitude for research so that experiments in new methods and techniques in education suited to the country and the community may be undertaken," we think that it is necessary to do so both by offering a theoretical course in the subject and by requiring an original piece of research howsoever limited in scope. Recognizing the limitation of time factor, we suggest that care be exercised in the choice of topics for research.

56. Higher Research Degree in Education. *We recommend that training colleges and universities encourage higher research in education by making provision for the Doctor's degree in education.*

As the Master's degree in almost all the Indian universities is called the Master of Education (M. Ed) degree, the Doctor's degree could most appropriately be called the Doctor of Education (D. Ed) degree.

57. University Faculty of Education. *We recommend that every university should have a separate faculty of education.*

Not only is education one of the important professions, but it is the single largest profession ; and we feel that if courses in education and educational research are to receive their due attention from the university, there should be a separate faculty of education composed largely of persons qualified in education. Teachers in training colleges, practising school teachers, and educational administrators should all be adequately represented on the educational faculty, which today tends to be monopolised by university teachers,

SERVICE TO SCHOOLS AND THE COMMUNITY

The second function of training institutions is that of service to schools and the community. We agree with the Commission's suggestion (p. 169) that the staffs of training colleges should "serve as consultants to a school or group of schools conducting some programme of improvement."

We should like to suggest a few ways in which training institutions can serve the schools and the community :

- (i) provision of an advisory or counselling service to schools ;
- (ii) provision to individuals or organised groups of field workers in education of access to such college facilities as libraries and laboratories ;
- (iii) participation by members of the staff and the student body in such community activities as forums and other enterprises having a broadly educational aim ;
- (iv) provision of opportunities to practising teachers to observe the working of the demonstration schools conducted by the training institutions ;
- (v) collaboration in the production of pamphlets of practical use to teachers in schools, either on problems connected with the general organization of schools or on problems connected with the teaching of special subjects.

RESEARCH IN EDUCATION

We look upon research in education as the third function of training institutions and agree with the Commission's suggestion (p. 170) that "the training college should in essence be not merely a college for training teachers, but an institution for research work in all aspects of pedagogy."

Research may be conducted by members of the staffs of training institutions independently or in collaboration with teachers from schools. It may also take the form of investigations by advanced research students under the guidance of the members of the staff.

For collection of statistical data as well as other data which will serve as the bases for the framing of educational policies, a training college will not be the most suitable agency. Such research should be conducted by the state department of education. In the section of this report on *Administration, Control and Finance* we have recommended that each state should have adequate professional personnel attached to the office of the Director of Education for this purpose. However, the services of individual members of staffs of training institutions may be enlisted for such work. The data collected should be made available to any research worker who needs it in connection with his own investigations,

The survey type of research again, would generally be a function of the state department, and here also assistance of individual members of the staffs of training colleges would be helpful.

Besides assistance in such investigations, training institutions should undertake research that is directly connected with pedagogy and child development. Some examples of such research are :

- (i) research having the purpose of improving curricula and syllabuses in schools and training colleges ;
- (ii) research having the purpose of judging the efficiency of different methods and techniques ;
- (iii) research in devising and standardising objective tests of various types, specially those that will be helpful in (i) teacher selection at various levels, (ii) selection of pupils for various types of courses and (iii) guidance to pupils.
- (iv) case studies of children ;
- (v) studies of problems of backward children ;
- (vi) studies of problems of gifted children ;
- (vii) studies of children's interests ;
- (viii) studies of children's needs in different communities ;
- (ix) preparation of materials such as vocabulary tests, structural linguistic materials and social studies units ;
- (x) studies of textbooks and children's reading materials.

Although publication of literature can at best be a peripheral activity of a training institution, training colleges could well engage themselves in the preparation of materials (suitable for publication) that would be useful to teachers and pupils.

There is great need for co-ordinating the research undertaken by different training institutions. At present there is much unnecessary duplication and consequent waste of energy. Area training organizations should prove useful within each State and at least should devise ways and means of making some form of co-ordination possible. An annual conference of principals of training institutions can fulfil this purpose.

We regard the three functions of a training institution—training, service to schools and research—as complementary one to another. The effectiveness of each depends upon the effectiveness of the others. We do not accept the view strongly held by some educationalists that the conduct of research by training institutions tends to weaken the programme of teacher training. Given an adequate staff and the necessary facilities, we believe that research far from leading to a neglect of the other functions, has the effect of invigorating the programmes both of training and of educational service.

PART II

ORGANIZATION, CONTENT AND METHODS

A. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The Twofold Aim. Behind all planned educational activity there lie, whether consciously formulated or not, assumptions about values and aims. An educational system thus reflects values and aims that are commonly accepted in the society it serves, and a particular educational institution reflects the outlook of those that shape its life. It has been a source of encouragement to us to find ourselves at home in good educational establishments in every country we studied, since that points to consensus about human values.

In reflecting on our experiences, we recognize that wherever we have seen what appeared to us to be fine education, it has reflected the same two broad aims and the attempt to bring them into fruitful synthesis. We find the same two aims in the Commission's Report. The first arises out of concern for the individual, the second out of concern for something beyond the individual.

Development of the Individual. The first aim may be described as the full, harmonious development of every child entrusted to the educational system and helping him to find his feet in the world and manage his life. This aim runs through the whole of the Commission's Report and motivates many of its important recommendations.

The Commission sub-divides this general aim into the nurture of body, mind and spirit, or, to put it in another way, the child's physical, intellectual and emotional growth (see particularly pp. 20-21, 28, 74-75). Spelling out the aim in further detail, the Commission declares that the present bookish curriculum should be reconstructed so as to provide for all of the following : growth of the body and development of physical and mental health ; building of character and growth of social responsibility, indeed, of a "passion for social justice" ; intellectual development issuing in knowledge and understanding as well as the power of independent observation and thought ; development of practical and constructive abilities ; release and articulation of creative forces or, as it may also be put, development of the artist in each human being.

Whether phrased as above or in other words, we traced the same broad aim of all-round growth and a similar analysis into different aspects of human nature in good schools around the world. We wish to emphasize one expression in practice of this outlook that particularly impressed us throughout our tour : the respect for individual personality as something that unfolds from within rather than something that can be moulded or trained from without. Many of the practices in good American schools, with their electives and tactful attempts to discover needs, talents and interests of individual pupils, are evidence of this respect. In England, not only the Englishman's home but also his personality are traditionally his castle, and we found this tradition reflected throughout the educational system. Even in a school system

with as relatively rigid a curriculum as the Danish, the distinction was clear between demands made on achievement and respect for the inner life and the personality of the individual. Such respect seems to us a natural result of seeing education as providing conditions for all-round growth. Personality is the sum total of this growth, its end product; and as the balance of talents, needs and interests of each individual is different, so each emerging personality will be unique.

Service of Something beyond the Individual. We also find the other broad aim expressed in the Commission's Report, as well as having seen it everywhere in good educational practice. Its formulation in words arises naturally out of the questions: What are we educating the rising generation for? What ends are we ourselves serving?

The answers vary widely, to be sure, since they flow from values and ideals, and these reflect the different experience and outlook of educators living in widely differing circumstances. But all have their common basis in the feeling that the individual is part of a greater whole and owes obligation to something beyond his small and transient self.

Since the influence of this aim seems to us important for educational theory and practice, we have tried to trace it into some of its characteristic expressions below.

Interpretation of the Wider Aim. The Commission (pp. 23-29) squarely places on education the obligation to serve the needs of independent India, and derives a set of subsidiary demands from this obligation. Education, we are told, must have *citizenship* as a goal; it must give the country citizens able "to bear worthily the responsibilities of democratic citizenship" and holding a "broad, national and secular outlook." (In a later passage—p. 125—the Commission emphasizes that "secular" does not imply that "there is no place for religion in the State" but merely that the State should not "set its seal of approval on any particular religion"). Education, the Commission continues, must also serve the needs of present-day India by improving *productive efficiency*, thus raising the standard of living of the people. Finally, since after years of "oppressive and widespread poverty" India suffers from a neglect of cultural pursuits and activities, education has the obligation to stimulate a cultural renaissance.

The "beyond-the-individual" aim is here plainly national and social; it combines the obligation to serve the country's needs with the appeal to the individual to lose and hence find himself in the greater whole of the nation.

The commission goes a step further in width of aim, however, and calls for education for true patriotism (pp. 26-27), which includes critical awareness of the weaknesses in one's own country and readiness to work for their elimination rather than indulgence in jingoistic self-satisfaction. True patriotism, the Commission adds, goes beyond this, too, to a rejection of the maxim "my country,

right or wrong" and to "a lively realization of the fact that we are all members of One World, and must be prepared, mentally and emotionally, to discharge the responsibilities which such membership implies."

We also found *social idealism* as a motive in educational practice, notably in Indian institutions working for raising the level of rural life and deriving inspiration from the person and teaching of Mahatma Gandhi. India's economic needs were undoubtedly in the minds of their leaders, too, but a more dominant factor behind the social aim was plainly religious. It was a deeply moving experience for us to share in the corporate acts of worship in these institutions—"secular" in the sense of transcending particular doctrines but religious in their reverent *seeking for the ultimate truth*. "This is the heart of what we are doing," the head of one of the institutions explained, and it was clear that he felt not only the aim of helping individuals to grow but the social aim itself to be caught up in the greater aim of serving the external values to which Gandhiji had devoted his life.

To social, national and religious aims we must add a fourth that we have found playing an important role in educational theory and practice: a cultural aim. The Commission, to be sure, formulates it as a national need in present conditions, which it undeniably is; but it seems equally plain that education has a never-ending obligation to cherish the cultural heritage, passing it on to competent and reverent hands.

This aim we found playing a part in many good schools in India; in one, at least, it was explicitly the dominant aim. Since Indian cultural traditions are intimately interwoven with religious, the cultural and social sanctions were here fused and provided a coherent programme.

A sense of obligation to the culture also lay behind the work and daily life in many of the good schools we saw abroad. It seemed to be particularly strong in Scottish schools, in the higher forms of English grammar schools, and throughout the Danish school systems. In the Danish welfare state, which has no crying problem of poverty and inequality, there is little fire behind a social motivation for education. The overwhelming majority of the people belong to the same church, and religion is not generally felt as a seeking for new and deeper understanding nor a source of inspiration for education. In this relatively stable, homogeneous and contented society, the cultural heritage is seen as a great and precious asset, and schools are regarded as having their principal motivation in the obligation to pass it on. Much of the relatively good status of Danish teachers seems to us to stem from their position as guardians of cultural values, and the unquestioned duty to serve these values seems to us largely to explain the happy and purposeful activity in Danish schools.

Conclusions. We have tried to indicate the principal forms in which we have seen the "beyond-the-individual" aim express itself. In

what follows, we wish to draw certain conclusions that seem to us to have a bearing on educational planning.

(i) Far from being contradictory, the aim of serving the individual and the aim of serving something beyond him can and should be fused into one. Human beings do not grow to full human stature save through taking part in the life about them. Neither human society nor the understandings and values towards which it has struggled through the ages can be preserved and further enriched save through the contributions of free and creative personalities. It is significant that where the Commission elaborates the social aim of securing good citizens, it does so in a chapter headed, "The Education of Character", and there is throughout the Report an interplay of the concepts of individual growth and social obligations. In all the good schools we saw, the teachers were mediating between the child and the greater whole in a way that served both. It was just their artistic achievement of harmony between the two that gave rise to the purposeful as well as happy spirit in their schools.

(ii) The fact that the concept of what greater whole was being served varied between different educators seemed to matter less than the degree to which the concept inspired them. We saw schools doing good and even creative work in a happy spirit where the inspiration of the leaders was of a humbler order than the terms we have been using might suggest. There was, for instance, the excellent school in Northumberland, where the head and staff seemed above all devoted to the ideal of serving the needs of the surrounding farming community and fitting its children to turn to its service. And we saw keen, happy urban schools with a vocational bias where the teachers seemed to find their motivation in the aim of turning out young people who would decently and competently take their place as citizens and carry out the tasks their local community required of its members. Examples could be multiplied, but enough has been said to illustrate our conclusion that down-to-earth forms of the aim of service are not to be despised.

To this we should, however, add two observations. First, a down-to-earth motive may perhaps be less restricted than at first appears. Behind it may lie wider concepts of social and moral, perhaps of cultural and religious values. Second, although a teacher will work best when inspired by concepts suited to his understanding and should be left free to do so, there is no doubt that the wider and more profound the ideals a teacher holds, the richer will be his contribution and the better he will equip the children in his care to understand life and to serve it.

(iii) The preceding sentence has a special implication for those planning the education programme, particularly those planning it on a state-wide scale. Ultimately, education everywhere must serve the same aim: the common aim of mankind to struggle up out of bondage and darkness. Lesser aims there may be on the way; but a people whose education is directed by aims that, because of their narrow range, conflict with the ultimate aim, is being directed into a blind alley.

The Commission has heeded this truth in its insistence that patriotism must have no narrower a final goal than a One World allegiance. The acts of worship that are at the heart of the institutions inspired by the Mahatma are another example of going beyond restricted and hence conflicting aims. What is best in the cultural heritage of each people is of universal value, and the service of this heritage receives its deepest significance as the service of all mankind.

No lesser values and no lesser concept of service should lie behind the planning of nation-wide schools systems.

(iv) The aims and values held by persons in leading positions in an educational system will influence both the spirit and the practices throughout that system. They are contagious. Those that we have described on the previous pages seem everywhere to have led to an attitude of respect for personality all down the line of authority, from the highest administrators to the children in the classrooms. They are also the bases of the happy and co-operative spirit we have observed in fine schools in every country visited on our tour.

The broad aims have implications for the curricula, too. Few if any existing programmes of education have been drawn up in the logical order, first defining aims and then framing courses and methods to carry them out. They have mostly grown piecemeal and been modified from time to time in response to new demands and to shifts in emphasis. But these demands and shifts tend in the long run to bring educational institutions into harmony with the underlying aims and values of those that lead them. And the formulation of basic aims can in its turn serve as a yardstick in judging the suitability of existing plans and practices.

Specific Objectives. In the sections above, we have been dealing with the aims we seemed to see behind good educational practice and have found spelled out in the Commission's Report. It may be helpful to formulate more specific goals as well : particular objectives to be reached at some given stage of the school system. For the most part, such goals may be expressed as levels of attainment.

We have, therefore, started from the assumption of an 8-year primary or basic stage and asked ourselves the question : What should be achieved by the end of the first 8 years of schooling ?

In answering this question, we have had to recognize that there can be wide variations due to different individual abilities and backgrounds, differences arising out of pursuing an 8-year course in a single institution or with transfers from one school to another, and differences in curriculum for those who are terminating their schooling at the end of the course and those going on to the next school stage. Bearing all this variety in mind, we have considered it best merely to formulate a set of minimum objectives : attainments and experiences necessary for all normal pupils leaving the 8-year school.

We thus have arrived at the following list. We have made no attempt to place them in order of importance but simply in what seems to us a convenient manner, that is, first those that are wholly or largely the responsibility of the school (within this group come first the more traditional, intellectual objectives, then the artistic and the constructive); second, those where the responsibility is in large measure shared by home and society; and finally, the objective basic to all the rest: physical health. We have added a further objective that concerns only those leaving school to enter the world of work.

Minimum objectives for the 8-year School Stage.

- (i) A thorough mastery of the 3 R's—reading, writing and arithmetic—with some fluency in their handling, as well as reasonable ability to express thoughts and describe experiences in speech and writing.
- (ii) Elementary ability to draw independent conclusions and to obtain information through first-hand observation as well as from simple reference material.
- (iii) An insight into the cultural heritage, through literature, science, art and music.
- (iv) (This objective is less a level of attainment to be sought than experiences and opportunities the child should have had). Some realisation through first-hand experience of the release of creative forces through self-expression in the media of art, and opportunities to discover talents in this field; consequently some understanding of the outlook of the artist and the significance of his labour.
- (v) A fair competency in at least one handicraft, and practical experience of another.
- (vi) A good level of manners and poise in everyday social intercourse: some measure of skill in the practices of citizenship.
- (vii) (This objective is only applicable to those who leave the school to enter the world of work). Some orientation in the world of work obtained through (i) instruction about the nature and demands of appropriate branches of employment as well as of working conditions and the duties and rights of employers in them; (ii) guidance and counselling as to which types of employment to seek; (iii) orienting pre-vocational electives in the curriculum.

Objectives for the Stages beyond the First Eight Years. We envisage much variety in the length of studies, their purpose and their nature in the years to follow the 8-year school. The objectives to lay down will, therefore, also vary widely. They will in general be of two kinds: minimum levels of attainment in "core" aspects of development required of all persons as citizens and generally educated individuals;

and minimum levels in fields of competence required for the type of employment or further studies the particular individual seeks to enter on. The two categories of objectives will be recognized in the list given for the 8-year stage. For the following stages, all we can say is that the levels will have to be higher to a degree appropriate to the particular stage and the particular further studies or type of employment sought.



B. ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERN

General Pattern. The Central Advisory Board after studying the Commission's Report has recommended the following structural pattern :

- (a) 8 years of integrated elementary (Basic) education.
- (b) 3 or 4 years of secondary education.

We agree with this recommendation and offer the following comments :

58. **The First Eight Years.** The first eight years of schooling in India is at present given in three parallel systems : 8-year Basic (Wardha) schools ; 5-year primary plus 3 year middle or lower secondary schools ; 5-year elementary plus 3-year higher elementary schools.

The Commission has pointed out (p. 81) that "the existence of basic and non basic schools side by side tends to create a kind of unhealthy caste distinction in education". The Commission has also pointed out that the content of the curriculum will as far as possible be similar in the different types of schools and that "it is now an accepted principle that the primary curriculum whether-basic or non-basic should be based on activities."

We agree with this statement and think that the C. A. B.'s use of the word 'integrated' implies a recommendation to bring together the present parallel systems. We also believe that the courses in the lower and higher stages of the 8-year span should be integrated. This is easy to do when a single institution houses both stages. At present, however, a majority of schools offer only 4 or 5 years of instruction, and those children who desire to continue after this must transfer to another institution. Integration here presents a more difficult problem.

We recommend that, where possible, expansion of facilities shall take place by providing for all 8-years of the elementary stage in a single institution,

We recognize that there are historical and practical reasons behind the division, in India as elsewhere, of these eight years into two stages, in two different institutions, and we feel that the problem of transfer will remain and continue to call for special efforts to achieve an integration of the courses given in separate institutions. A large majority of primary schools at present have only four or five classes and many of the lower and secondary middle school classes are attached to secondary schools. The courses of study, and in some States the system of departmental control of the elementary schools and the higher elementary classes attached to them, are different from the courses of study and control for basic schools and lower secondary classes attached to secondary schools. We recognize that even after an integrated eight year course has been achieved, it may be necessary to have the lower and the higher stages of the course in different schools. In some places it may be necessary to have the higher stage attached to secondary schools. In other areas there may be a few 'central' schools of the higher stage and a number of schools of the lower stage so that the younger children do not have to walk long distances. In any case, in the integrated system all elementary schools should have the same objectives, although they may adopt different methods of teaching and adapt their courses in the higher stage to meet the needs of the pupils and the interests of the locality. If departmental control of elementary and secondary schools functions through two different boards, it will be necessary to co-ordinate the work of the two boards, especially for dealing with matters concerning the higher elementary classes attached to secondary schools.

The General Pattern Abroad. In the countries visited by us the main patterns for full-time schooling are as follows :

DENMARK

(compulsory period 7 to 14)

A. Urban

4-year primary school (7 to 11)

—sometimes preceded by a one-year kindergarten

4-year 'examination-free' middle school, or

4-year 'examination' middle school (11 to 15)

1-year 'real' class (15 to 16) built on 'examination' middle school

3-year high school (if entered from middle school)

2-year high school (if entered from 'real' class)

Public examinations : at the end of the 'examination' middle school (largely internal examination), the 'real' school (largely internal examination) and the high school.

B. Rural

- (i) 7-year school giving primary and 'examination-free' middle school education.

- (ii) 3-year primary school (7 to 10).
4-year middle school (usually 'examination-free')

Either (i) or (ii) may be followed by

4-year 'youth-school' classes, which must be provided if the parents of fifteen or more children aged 14 to 18 in a local government area demand them.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

(Compulsory period 5 to 15)

- (i) 10-year 'all-age' school giving primary and secondary education (5 to 15)

(N. B. This pattern is being eliminated as fast as possible.)

- (ii) 6-year primary education (5 to 11), in two stages :—

(a) Infants' school (5 to 7)

(b) Junior school (7 to 11)

—sometimes preceded by 3-year nursery school, or
2-year nursery class

4, or more years modern secondary school, or

(2-year modern secondary school

2, or more years' technical or grammar secondary school or)

4, or more years' technical secondary school, or

5-7 years' grammar secondary school

Public examination : The General Certificate of Education, open to any one aged 16 or over, and in approved cases to pupils below 16
Not compulsory.

SCOTLAND.

(Compulsory period 5 to 15)

- (i) As England (i) above

- (ii) 7-year primary school (5 to 12)—occasionally preceded by nursery school or class

3-year junior secondary school, or

6-year senior secondary school

Public examination : at the end of the senior secondary school.

WEST GERMANY.

*(Compulsory period 6 to 14 or 15 full-time
3 years part-time schooling.)*

- (i) 8-year elementary school (6 to 14)
3-year part time vocational school (14 to 17)

- (ii) 9-year elementary school (6-15)
3-year part-time vocational school (15 to 18)
- (iii) 4-year primary school (6 to 10)
8, or more years' grammar school (10 to 18)
- (iv) 6-year primary school (6 to 12)
(3-year 'practical' secondary school (12 to 15)
(3-year part-time vocational school (15 to 18), or
(4-year technical secondary school (12-16)
(2-year part-time vocational school (16 to 18) or
7-year grammar school (12 to 19)

Public examinations : at the end of the grammar school course and of part-time vocational education.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

(Compulsory period 6 to 15*, 16, or 18)

- (i) 6-year primary school
3-year junior high school
3-year senior high school
- (ii) 8-year elementary school
4-year high school
- (iii) 6-year primary school
6-year high school
- (iv) 7-year elementary school
5-year high school

Public examinations : in the sense in which 'public' is used in India, none.

The Higher Stage. The Commission has recommended—

- (i) that the first year of the present intermediate stage should be replaced by the last year of the higher secondary stage which should be of four years' duration ;
- (ii) that for those who pass out of the (three-year) high school there should be provision for a pre-university course of one year (first year of the present intermediate stage), during which period the scheme of studies should be planned with due regard to the needs of the degree or the professional course to be taken ;
- (iii) that the first degree course in the university should be of three years' duration.

*Note. Only in a few southern States is this the case. Elsewhere, compulsion obtains up to 16 or beyond.

We have gathered that there are strong differences of opinion regarding the acceptance of the organizational pattern recommended by the Commission. Among other reasons that have been advanced for doubts regarding the proposed changes are :-

- (i) While it is desirable to have provision for a 5-year higher secondary course, it is not essential that all pupils who wish to have secondary education should have a four years' course. A three years' high school course may be sufficient for some who wish to terminate their education at that stage.
- (ii) While one single pattern of educational structure may be convenient, it may not be practicable or advisable. Flexibility in structure is a feature which helps growth, efficiency and adaptability to the needs of society.
- (iii) In English universities where the first degree is a three-year course very few students enter on their university studies until they are well on in their nineteenth year.
- (iv) Though the intermediate stage in Indian universities has been a part of the 4-year degree course, it serves also as a stage at which a very large number of students drop out for various reasons. There are at present numerous avenues for vocational and professional training open to those who complete the intermediate stage and it may not be wise to eliminate this possible terminal point.
- (v) It is desirable that in the entire structural pattern of school and collegiate education there should be more terminal stages which would divert a greater proportion of students than at present to avenues other than the higher courses in the university.
- (vi) The Commission has said (p.32) that a large majority of the existing high schools will be unable for some years to come to convert themselves into the contemplated higher secondary schools. This would mean that it will be difficult for a large majority of pupils to get the higher secondary school certificate. This as well as the problems connected with the conversion (i) of high schools into higher secondary schools, (ii) of intermediate colleges into either higher secondary schools or degree colleges and (iii) of degree colleges into three-year degree colleges with pre-university classes, and the provision of pre-professional courses in professional colleges, will create difficulties in many States at a time when the States should be seriously concerned with the expansion of basic schools and development of secondary education.

In view of these and other reasons it seems to us that if the States wish to adopt more flexible organizational patterns they should be free to do so. We give below the ways in which we have seen similar problems met in Denmark, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Patterns in other Countries. In Denmark a rich variety of continuation courses at all levels provides for large numbers of young persons wishing to obtain vocational competence or further general education. Such courses open avenues to employment in many fields and lead to higher technical studies or even, in some instances, to university studies. The complete secondary school is of 7 years' duration, consisting of a 4-year middle school and a 3-year senior secondary school. The first five years ending with the first class in the senior secondary stage may be a terminal course leading to what is called the *real* certificate. The *real* certificate opens the way to the world of work in many fields, to certain higher vocational institutions such as the college of engineering, the school of pharmacy and the school of dentistry, and to a variety of lower technical and vocational institutions, whether whole or part-time. It also leads, of course, to the remaining two classes of the secondary stage which terminate with the matriculation examination.

In England there are secondary schools of various kinds at which pupils stay for varying lengths of time. In the grammar schools there are 'sixth form' courses of two or three years' duration preparing students for the university and for other types of higher education. There is also a large variety of continuation courses leading to competence in various branches of employment.

In the United States also there is a wide variety of continuation courses at various levels. We should especially like to mention the junior college or community college. A junior college generally offers four types of courses :—

- (i) two-year terminal courses in general education ;
- (ii) two-year courses leading to admission with advanced standing in the universities and senior colleges ;
- (iii) two-year terminal courses of a vocational nature ;
- (iv) special short-term courses and adult education courses of varying lengths.

Normally, the completion of the two-year course is recognized by the award of the degree of Associate of Arts or Associate of Science.

Suggestions for India. On the basis of the above discussion, we have the following suggestions to offer :

59. Length of the Secondary Course. We recommend that the secondary course may be of 4 or 3 years' duration on the lines of the 4-year higher secondary school recommended by the Commission and the existing 3-year high school respectively. Both these courses should be flexible in their objectives so as to cater for pupils who wish to offer them as terminal courses or as preparation for higher courses of study.

We believe that for a long time to come, and as long as high school education is not free and compulsory, there will be a fair proportion of pupils, who for financial and other reasons, would prefer to terminate

their secondary education at the end of the 3-year high school course as at present and enter upon vocations or join vocational courses. It does not seem to us to be necessary that such pupils should be required to continue in the secondary school for one more year to complete the higher secondary course. What is important, however, is that during the eight-year elementary and the three-year high school they should receive an effective education suited to their aptitudes and interests and that when they leave school with the high school certificate they should have opportunities for part-time or full-time vocational training.

We agree with the Commission that it will be very difficult for some time to come for many of the existing three-year high schools to convert themselves into higher secondary schools with the necessary accommodation, equipment and staff. Unless the fourth year class of the higher secondary school has equipment and staff comparable with the existing junior intermediate class, pupils proceeding from it are not likely to reach the standard of attainment of the junior intermediate student ; and this will have an adverse effect on the standards of the universities. We feel that great care will have to be taken in converting high schools into higher secondary schools, so that pupils leaving them do not have attainments lower than those completing the present junior intermediate stage.

On the other hand, wherever possible, high schools should be encouraged to convert themselves into higher secondary schools, as a four-year secondary school will provide a more complete secondary education and prepare pupils better for university education. How pupils from the higher secondary schools may be fitted into college courses which may be 3, 4 or more years' duration is a matter for the universities to decide.

60. Junior Colleges. *We recommend that an institution similar to the junior college of America be developed for pupils who wish to continue their education after the high school or the higher secondary school, but are not thinking of higher university studies.*

A junior college may be an independent unit or a part of a high school or a part of a degree college. Junior colleges may be under the control of the State education department or the university or both. They would differ from the present intermediate stage of the university in the flexibility of their courses both in their duration and in their objectives. Students who successfully complete the full course of the junior college may be awarded the degree of Associate of Arts or Associate of Science in order to establish their qualification for entry into the different avenues of employment available to them.

The primary function of junior colleges should be to provide an all-round terminal education with an added emphasis on semi-vocational and semi-professional preparation. They may, in addition, provide the necessary pre-university preparation for students from three-year high schools proceeding to the three-year degree course. We also envisage the possibility of a small proportion of junior college graduates desiring

to continue their studies leading to the Bachelor's degree. The length of the degree course for such graduates would be a matter for the universities to decide.

Among the numerous semi-vocational and semi-professional courses we have found in American junior colleges are :—

- Ceramics
- Merchandising
- Junior accountants
- Food processing
- Engineering aides
- Electric technicians
- Communication installers
- Display technicians
- Lay-out artists
- Dental technicians
- Statistical aides
- Medical secretaries
- X-ray technicians
- Laboratory technicians
- Landscape gardeners
- Horticulturists
- Building maintenance
- Automotive mechanics.

We believe that a terminal stage at the end of the junior college is desirable in India for many students who, for want of such a stage, now proceed to the degree courses of the university. Students who complete the junior college should be competent to enter many of the public services now open only to those who have university degrees. They might also very well be the main source for the staffing of the higher stages of the eight-year elementary schools for some time to come.

61. External Examinations. In the pattern given above there are terminal stages (i) at the end of the eight-year basic or elementary course (ii) at the end of the three-year high school course, (iii) at the end of the four-year higher secondary course, (iv) at the end of the junior college course, and (v) after the degree course.

We recommend that there should be no external examinations at the end of the elementary stage and the three year high school stage, but certificates authorised by the state should be given to pupils who complete these terminal stages.

This pattern can be introduced without seriously disturbing the existing structure in many of the States. The flexibility provided in the structure and the fact that the three-year high school, the four-year higher secondary school and the junior college can be terminal courses as well as courses leading to a large variety of continuation studies, are valuable for growth and efficiency in education.

If, as the Commission has recommended, selection for and recruitment to the different public services are made at definite age periods, the provision of additional terminal stages in the structure will be found to meet an urgent need. It is our hope that many students will consider the junior college as one which gives them adequate education for joining public services of various kinds.

62. Maturity of Pupils. During our tour abroad we were impressed by the generally high level of attainment of pupils at the end of the primary and the secondary school stages as compared with Indian pupils at the same stages. This seems to us to be connected with the higher age level of pupils at equivalent stages in the school abroad. They are more mature and therefore able to achieve greater progress. In Denmark where the total school period is eleven years, primary education begins at the age of seven and pupils matriculate at the age of eighteen. In the other countries we visited we also found that few pupils enter the universities before the age of eighteen. So long as the total length of the school period cannot be extended, and as certain standards are to be reached, it is better to give the available schooling during the age period when it gives the maximum benefit. The Commission refers (p. 31) to the age of six as that accepted by the Government of India for commencing school; but in practice it is common for children to do so at five and begin straightaway the systematic course of instruction.

In the United Kingdom and the United States many children start school at five, but they do not begin systematic learning (of the three R's) till later. In Denmark, kindergartens, where no formal instruction is given, are increasingly being provided for children whose parents desire them to begin some kind of schooling before the age of seven. The English Ministry of Education has stated its opinion that "there should be no systematic teaching of reading, writing or number before the child has attained the mental age of six."

We recommend that entrance upon a systematic course of instruction in the elementary school should not, save in exceptional cases, take place before the age of six.

63. Nomenclature. There is at present some confusion about terms, in particular 'secondary', 'elementary', 'primary', 'basic' and 'Basic'.

We recommend that regardless of the organisational pattern of the first eight years of schooling this stage be called 'elementary' and the following three or four years of schooling be called 'secondary'.

Diversified Courses. We have found that there is a certain amount of misunderstanding regarding the objectives of the diversified courses recommended by the Commission, though the Commission has stated these very definitely. On page 36 of the Report it is said: "The whole modern approach to this question is based on the insight that the intellectual and cultural development of different individuals takes place best through a variety of media, that the book or the study of traditional academic subjects is not the only door to the education of the personality and that, in the case of many—perhaps a majority—of the children, practical work intelligently organized can unlock their latent energies much more successfully than the traditional subjects which address themselves only to the mind, or worse still, the memory." And again on page 43: "The objective of the school is to give an all-round training in the use of tools, materials and processes which are mainly responsible for turning the wheels of civilization. The school is not intended to produce artisans." It is obvious from the courses proposed by the Commission with a strong core of general studies that the technical or vocational studies will constitute only about one-third of the curriculum. The secondary technical schools of England are also planned in this manner. The diversified courses now functioning in the high schools in Madras and the courses in the technical high school recommended by the Sargent Report are also based on these principles. In the technical courses in the comprehensive schools in America at least fifty per cent of the time is devoted to the core curriculum for general education. The main objective of the diversified courses in secondary schools is, therefore, general education with a vocational bias, and not vocational competence for direct entry into vocations. For more intensive technical and vocational education at the secondary school level a parallel system of technical and vocational courses, both part-time and full-time, is provided in the Commission's Report (See p. 45).

64. **Continued Education.** In all the foreign countries we visited, we found rich provision for continued education at all levels beyond the compulsory school stage. This took the form of full-time and part-time courses, evening schools and even residential institutions. The part-time and evening courses generally made use of the regular school buildings and of the services of school teachers who, incidentally, found opportunities for extra employment involving use of their professional skill. The courses ranged from general culture to specific trade or vocational training. A good illustration of the importance of such courses is found in Denmark. The period of compulsory schooling is only seven years. But through locally felt needs an enormous variety of continuation courses has arisen. The state is obliged by law to give substantial aid to any *bona fide* course whether organised for cultural or vocational purposes. The result is that, in spite of the restricted period of compulsory schooling, Denmark has one of the highest cultural levels of the world. As a temporary measure, the Commission advocates (p. 53) making part-time education available for children leaving school before the end of the eight-year period. We agree with this recommendation.

We further recommend that the States consider the question of providing continuation courses at all age levels, including the adult, with a view to encouraging this important and relatively inexpensive supplement to regular school courses.

Multi-purpose Schools. We agree with the Commission's view (p. 36) on the advantages of a diversification of courses and support the recommendations that multi-purpose schools be established wherever possible (Rec. 8, p. 57), and that pupils who have successfully completed such courses be given opportunities to take up appropriate higher specialized courses in polytechnics or technological institutions (Rec. 9, P. 57).

65. **Multi-purpose School Systems.** *The provision of a large number of different types of courses may not be possible in every school. We recommend that in such circumstances, if the school population justifies it, arrangements be worked out co-operatively for each school to offer one or two types of courses, so that taken together the schools make available a wide range of different courses to the children residing in the area.*

We saw this system working successfully in Southampton, England. Different schools in the area provided courses in agriculture, naval pre-service, shipbuilding, carpentry, home science, commercial subjects, etc.

Agricultural Education. We believe that the aim of raising both the standard of agriculture and the level of general culture in the Indian countryside can be served by the introduction of agriculture as a subject in rural multi-purpose schools and we endorse the Commission's recommendation in this regard. (Rec. 10, p. 57).

In the United Kingdom and the United States we found elective courses in agriculture, horticulture and animal husbandry given in a number of rural secondary schools. In highly advanced agricultural Denmark, on the other hand, rural secondary schools had the same general culture curriculum as urban schools and agricultural courses were given as a part of continued education at various levels.

66. **Technical Education.** Our experience confirms the findings of the Commission on the present position of technical education in India and we agree with the Commission's analysis of the categories of students requiring it. We were impressed in Denmark, the United Kingdom and the United States by the close co-operation in this field between industry, labour and the school. The systems of apprentice training in vogue in these countries tallied well with what the Commission advocates in its Report.

We agree with most of the Commission's recommendations on technical education (Recommendations 11—15, & 17, pp. 57-58) and with those of the Central Advisory Board (contained in Part B, paragraph (2) (f) of the Report of its Committee on the Secondary Education Commission's Report).

We further recommend that the States and the All-India Council for Technical Education consider the advantages and the possibilities of a liberal provision of evening and other part-time technical courses at various age levels in addition to full-time technical schooling.

We have some reservation about the wisdom of the Commission's recommendation (Rec. 16, p. 58) for an Industrial Education Cess. (See the section in this report on *The Financing of Education* for a fuller discussion of this matter).

Residential Schools. In parts of rural England and Wales we found residential secondary schools that in their successful operation seemed to bear out the views of the Commission (pp. 51-52) in this matter. Some of these schools were only partly residential. The primary purpose behind these residential schools was to provide secondary education to children who lived at an inconvenient distance from available day schools ; but they also catered for children who, for one reason or another, were in need of residential schooling. We found in these schools most of the benefits generally associated with good public schools without the disadvantages of social segregation.

We endorse the Commission's recommendation that residential schools should be established in suitable centres (Rec. 20, p. 58).



C. CURRICULUM

Our experiences during our tour of India support the findings of the Commission (pp. 20-22 and pp. 74-79) regarding the defects of the existing curriculum which the Commission describes as too narrowly conceived, laying too much emphasis on bookish knowledge, crowded with insignificant detail, insufficiently adapted to individual differences, dominated by examinations, lacking in provision for technical and vocational studies, and "out of tune with life". It "fails to prepare students for life. It does not give them a real understanding of, or insight into, the world outside school, into which they will presently have to enter."

Similar criticisms have in the past been levelled against the curricula of schools in the Western countries and still are levelled in some areas. One might almost say that the dominant efforts of educational reform in the West during the last fifty years have been directed to solving this very problem of an unsuitable curriculum. On the whole, we found many similarities in the solutions arrived at in Denmark, the United Kingdom and the United States and close correspondence between them and the principles the Commission advocates (p. 80). But the differences, too, are of interest and represent different concepts of the balance that should be struck between certain competing objectives : on the one hand, catering to individual interests and needs and, on the other, maintaining standards; on the one hand, regard for the needs of society at the moment and, on the other, the obligation to the permanent values in the cultural heritage; on the one hand, the wish to give every child the whole range of curricular choices, and, on the other, the need to distribute available resources to the best average advantage of all.

We agree with the Commission's view on the basic principles of curriculum construction (pp. 80-81) and their translation into more specific terms as objectives and fields of study for the middle school (senior Basic) stage and for the high school stage (pp. 81-84 and pp. 84-94). We endorse the Commission's recommendations 1 to 3 on p. 100 regarding the curriculum.

MIDDLE SCHOOL (SENIOR BASIC) STAGE

Minimum Levels of Attainment. In view of the desirability of bringing the different types of schools into closer integration, we suggest that educational authorities study the question of common minimum levels of attainment.

67. **Provision of Electives.** Since for a long time to come a large majority of pupils will not continue school beyond the 8-year period, we consider it necessary to frame the curriculum so as to serve their needs as well as those of the minority going on to the secondary school stage.

We therefore recommend that, at the middle school stage, in addition to the common core subjects, electives be provided to serve the needs of pupils of varying abilities, some of whom will leave school after the eighth grade and others will go on to the secondary school.

In England, at the age of 11+, pupils are selected according to their abilities and aptitudes for secondary grammar, technical or modern schools. In Denmark, pupils who may not profit by higher academic education are guided at 11+ to study in the non-examination middle school. In the United States while there are no separate schools for pupils of varying abilities, electives are provided in addition to the common core subjects. The electives we recommend for this stage may be provided taking into consideration (i) their suitability for pupils who will terminate their regular schooling after the eight years, (ii) their suitability for those who will continue their education in a secondary school, and (iii) the needs and special interests of the locality.

The electives suggested, apart from the choice of English to which a reference is made later, are intended to give the pupils the essential skills in the handling of everyday tools and to acquaint them with the processes employed in the local industries. Examples of such local industries are agriculture, horticulture, poultry rearing, dairying, fisheries, weaving, tanning, leather craft, pottery and glass industry. It should be possible for a school which provides one or more of these electives to correlate much of the teaching of the other subjects to the electives offered, as is done in the Basic schools.

The increasing enforcement of compulsory schooling up to the age of 14 will make it more and more necessary to provide for the whole range of intellectual abilities in the age group 11-14. This problem is met in Danish and English schools by dividing the children according to their abilities and interests and providing different schools or streams

within the same school for them. The practice in the United States is more commonly to allow all to attend the same school but to provide for individual variations through electives and through differentiated courses in certain subjects. We suggest the American solution as more appropriate for India.

68. Language Courses. We believe that pupils unable to profit from the ordinary courses in a particular field of study should be given courses on a level, and conducted in a manner, suited to their abilities. This principle should be applied to language courses as much as to courses in other subjects. Thus, while agreeing with the Commission's view that some proficiency in a second language is desirable for all, we do not think that all pupils should be required to follow the same course.

We recommend that those who cannot profit from the ordinary language studies should take a simpler, direct method course leading to an elementary working knowledge of the second language while the linguistically gifted pupils should be given a more advanced course during the last year or two of this school stage.

We agree with the Commission's view that every child, whose mother tongue is not Hindi, should take Hindi as a second language in the middle school (senior Basic) stage.

We also agree with the Commission's view that every school should make provision for the teaching of English, though not as a compulsory subject. It should be taught as a foreign language. This would follow the practice in Denmark, West Germany and Japan as in most other non-English speaking countries.

Place of Music and Art. We were impressed everywhere abroad by the important place given to music and art in the school curriculum. In some institutions we found not only excellent work being done in music and art classes as such but also a close correlation between these subjects and the work done in other fields. The Commission regards music and art as essential activities in the middle school, and we endorse this view.

69. Artistic and Attractive Classrooms. In Denmark, the United Kingdom and the United States we found special attention being given to make the school and its surroundings beautiful. The classrooms were invariably well lighted and well ventilated and the classroom walls were painted in attractive and soothing colours. In the Danish schools in particular, beautiful plants, flowers, pictures and sculptures were generally used to make the classrooms and corridors cheerful and attractive. The pictures and sculptures exhibited were generally originals by reputed local artists or by the school children themselves. In some schools in India, too, we were impressed with the cleanliness of the buildings and the grounds and with the efforts to beautify classrooms; but we were even more distressed to see many schools with dark, ill-ventilated, overcrowded and dreary classrooms. Good school accommodation, not necessarily expensive, but healthy and tasteful, is in itself a valuable provision for the wholesome development of the personalities of children and for the cultural improvement of society.

We recommend that education authorities and school managements pay special attention to making school buildings pleasant and attractive.

The Place of Craft. We agree with the Commission's emphasis on the need to give every pupil continued experience of working in some form of handicraft. We suggest that this may be done either by providing a single course in a locally predominant craft or by providing a number of courses of shorter duration in handicraft activities of basic importance, such as woodwork, metal work, pottery and gardening. These were the commonest forms of work with the hand that we found in schools abroad. We think that pupils at this stage should have the opportunity to acquire the basic skills in handling tools for shaping the common materials of everyday use such as wood, metal and earth. Some schools may want to provide short subsidiary courses in these crafts correlated to the main craft chosen; others may find it more useful to have courses, of a year's duration, in each of these crafts. In one school in England we found a 'handyman's course' which included carpentry, metal work, brick work, painting and interior decoration.

Repetition of classes. We were painfully impressed during our tour in India by the wastage of human resources and available school facilities arising out of the disproportionately large number of pupils who are made to repeat classes. We recommend that this question be given serious consideration. The following suggestions may prove helpful in evolving suitable ways and means of avoiding the present wastage :—

- (i) smaller classes;
- (ii) individual and group methods of teaching;
- (iii) special classes for corrective work;
- (iv) differential assignments suited to the abilities and attainments of pupils;
- (v) better methods of evaluating progress and diagnosing errors;
- (vi) reducing irregular attendance of pupils ;
- (vii) basing promotion to higher classes on progress during the year and not on an annual examination;
- (viii) promotion by subjects and grouping of pupils by subjects.

HIGH AND HIGHER SECONDARY SCHOOLS

We agree with the Commission's recommendation regarding the provision of diversified courses of study at this stage. Regarding the detailed curriculum, we recommend the following modifications :—

70. Composite Language Courses. In Section A (i) in addition to the mother tongue or the regional language or a composite course of the mother tongue and a classical language, we recommend a composite course of the mother tongue and a regional language or a composite course of a regional language and a classical language.

71. The Social Studies Course. *We recommend that in Section B (i) the course in the social studies may be taught in any two years of the high school or the higher secondary school or it may be spread over the three or four years. This subject should not, however, be examined at the public examination.*

This modification would allow pupils who do not elect history or economics and civics in the Humanities Group in Section D to benefit from the social studies course at a maturer age than that in the first two years of the high school. We do not think that any pupil should be exempted from the social studies course. This position is consistent with the emphasis laid by the Commission on the development of civic understandings and civic attitudes.

72. Courses in Crafts. *We recommend that in Section C, instead of having to take one craft for the whole period of four years a pupil may take a different craft in each year.*

The reason for suggesting this change is that there may be some pupils who will benefit more by acquiring the elementary skills in two or three of the important handicrafts useful in everyday life than by pursuing one craft for four years. It has been found that with able craft teachers to guide them, pupils of this age can attain a fair proficiency in crafts even in one year.

73. Combination of Subjects in Section D. *We recommend that pupils be required to take only two subjects from one of the groups in Section D and that they be permitted to choose their third required subject freely from the same or any other group.*

This modification is recommended to make it easier for pupils to choose combinations of subjects which suit them best according to their special interests. There should also be provision for pupils to change their elective subjects with the minimum loss of time if it becomes plain that their first choice was wrong.

74. Adequacy of Curricular Offerings by Schools. *We recommend that in any group offered by a school under Section D not less than three of the listed subjects should be provided by the school.*

Unless this provision is made, pupils who desire to specialize will not be able to get the benefit of specialization in the group concerned.

Stage of Diversification. We take note of the Commission's recommendation that diversified courses should begin really in the second year of the high school stage. The Commission has, however, put forward a modification of this recommendation in paragraph 2 of page 91, and we think that some diversification may begin in the first year.

75. Encouragement to Schools to Reconstruct their Curricula. *Having regard to the overriding importance of giving the maximum possible autonomy to schools and of encouraging creative initiative on their part as*

well as to the need for adapting curricula to changing circumstances, we recommend that education departments should encourage and assist schools in reconstructing their curricula and courses of study.

Such assistance may take various forms. Refresher courses may be organized ; guidance in the preparation of courses and methods may be offered by the inspectorate ; and financial aid for necessary equipment for new courses may be provided.

D. CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

In the chapter on *The Education of Character* the Commission has offered many suggestions for citizenship education which are of the utmost importance at the present time when the country is passing through a phase of rapid developments in the field of education and of great changes in the social, economic and political life of the people. "Education in the proper sense is training in the art of living." Schools should realize this purpose of education and should reorientate their activities so as to educate their pupils to live as efficient and useful citizens of a democracy. They should become "laboratories in which social life, ideally conceived, is reconstructed and rehearsed." The Commission has rightly pointed out (p. 119) that "when we complain of indiscipline or lack of earnestness or slipshod methods of work or failure to appreciate the dignity of labour in the students, we should not forget that these may be due largely to defects in the community." This is all the more reason why schools should realize their responsibility for citizenship education.

Individuals learn through one or a combination of two or three different means :

- (i) *by precept*—learning through what is formally taught ;
- (ii) *by example*—learning through the observation of others;
- (iii) *by experience*—learning through doing, that is, by active participation.

The Preceptual Approach. This approach finds its primary usefulness and implementation in the organized curriculum and courses of study in the school. In each of the areas of organized subject matter comprising the curriculum, definite provision should be made for the inclusion of materials which contribute to the student's knowledge and understanding of the problems of citizenship. Not only must such awareness be manifest in the selected content of courses of study but, equally important, teachers must have such an awareness and utilize the numerous opportunities afforded each day for emphasizing the lessons inherent in such materials.

As the Commission has said, teachers can present all the school subjects, particularly the social studies, in such a way that students may develop a right outlook on the world in which they are living and acquire a proper appreciation of the nature of human relationships. An imaginative and sympathetic study of literature—of great books and great authors—can inculcate noble ideals and values. Teachers can also help pupils realize through their classroom work that great achievement calls for high standards of efficiency and integrity which are the basis of character. "They should enable them to cultivate a high sense of duty and the conscience of the artist which will not be satisfied—if it can be satisfied at all—with anything less than the best and the noblest."*

The organization of the curriculum and the methods of teaching and examination are important in helping pupils to acquire confidence in themselves and joy in doing the tasks allotted to them. If the courses of study are not suited to the abilities and aptitudes of the pupils and if examinations have the effect of developing in them an undue sense of inferiority, they are likely to leave school with a feeling of frustration and a sense of insecurity which are apt to express themselves in hostility towards society. The cause of indiscipline in schools and outside can often be traced to these factors. On the other hand, courses of studies suited to their aptitudes and abilities, wise counselling and guidance by teachers and a sound system of appraisal of school work will encourage them to aim at excellence in their own fields and to go out into the world with confidence and optimism.

The Importance of Example. The example set by the teachers and the senior pupils of a school play an important role in citizenship education. It is, of course, assumed that parental example also greatly influences pupils, and so it is necessary that teachers and parents should co-operate in this task. The teacher's character, his outlook on life, his behaviour in the class and outside, his attitude towards his work, his interest in the school activities, his habits of reading, all have an influence on the growing child. The teacher is the most important factor in the education of the young citizen and society should do everything possible to see that the status and the conditions of employment of teachers are such that the best young men and women are attracted to this most important profession.

It is an encouraging fact, however, that in spite of adverse conditions, teachers are on the whole idealistic enough and capable of doing good work, if they are given adequate guidance and encouragement. Many of them, having been themselves educated in schools and colleges with limited facilities for an effective citizenship education programme, are ignorant of how such a programme can be organized and operated. It is here that training institutions can help the schools not only through their pre-service and in-service training courses but also through their researches in this field of education. We were interested to see at the Universities of Columbia and Harvard serious efforts to help teachers in their work of citizenship education.

* A New Deal for Secondary Education.

The Experience Approach. This approach requires that pupils be given, both in school and in the community served by the school, adequate opportunities for active and responsible participation in the life of the school and the community. Generally speaking, young people are eager and able to assume such responsibility. The opportunities offered must be selected and tempered in terms of the experience and maturity of the pupils involved.

We wish to call attention to the programme of citizenship education suggested by the Madras Government for all secondary schools in the State. It consists of three parts :—

(i) **Organization of the School Community.** This deals with the organization of classes and of the school as a whole for responsible sharing by pupils in the 'running' of the school. In the other countries visited by us, notably in the United States, this phase of the programme is called 'student government'.

(ii) **Organized Activities.** This aspect has to do with the provision of opportunities, through organised activities, for the development of orderly procedures, courteous behaviour, and a spirit of service. The activities include : socially useful work like manual labour in the school and community ; excursions, trips and camps; training in social skills such as health practices and first aid; group singing and folk dancing. The pupils are to be encouraged to volunteer for training for proficiency in these activities and skills.

(iii) **Training of Teachers.** This provides for the training of teachers in the teacher training institutions to conduct the activities outlined above. Basic to such training, however, is an understanding of the significance and scope of citizenship education. There is provision also for the training of teachers already in service.

It is very important for citizenship education that the atmosphere of the school be one of mutual trust. In many schools the library shelves are inaccessible to pupils because they are not trusted. Examinations which should help pupils to understand their weaknesses and their strengths, are conducted in an atmosphere of mistrust. Most pupils in any school can be trusted to behave honestly, whilst the rest are most likely to respond to trust if they are trusted. In our tour in India and abroad we saw some excellent examples of trust in schools. In a few schools in India and in most of the schools in Germany, Denmark, the United Kingdom and the United States which we visited, the libraries are arranged for open access. In a school in Denmark, books were kept on open shelves even in the corridors. In some schools, co-operative bookshops and canteens are run by pupils in whose integrity there is complete trust.

In one school in India we found an interesting experiment by pupils who provided 'honour counters' for selling sweets and nuts. The class council, with a small capital raised from among the boys of the class, buys sweets and nuts every day and keeps them in tins on a table in the corridor outside the class. Pupils take the sweets and nuts and

deposit the marked price into a box kept for the purpose. At the end of each day the total collection is checked and announced. On some day there may be a loss, but on the whole the system works well.

In one American high school, we were impressed by the development of an 'honour system' designed by the students through their Council "to promote independent work by students and to develop a climate of student opinion in which high standards of honesty and integrity might flourish." In this particular school, students and teachers had become deeply concerned over the fact that many students 'copied' work of other students, and that a substantial amount of 'cheating', especially in written tests and examinations, took place despite the vigilant proctoring of such tests by teachers. After a lengthy consideration of the problem by the Student Council, during which a questionnaire survey of student opinion was conducted and the results published in the school newspaper after which discussions were held in the classes and in the school assemblies, an 'honour committee' was appointed broadly representative of all classes in the school. The honour committee representing the student body, with the counsel and assistance of the faculty, drew up a proposed 'honour plan' and then submitted it to a vote. The vote being favourable (but by no means unanimous), the proposed honour plan was put into operation.

Any subject-matter class or section, desiring to do so, could place itself on the honour plan (a) through a three-fourths vote of the students in the section and (b) with the concurrent approval of the teacher. Both teacher approval and student approval were necessary for a class to go on the honour plan. By so doing, the class would thereafter be permitted to take all written tests and examinations without any proctoring by either students or teachers. At the beginning of each examination, each student was required to sign the following statement at the head of the answer sheet: "I have neither given nor received any improper aid during this examination, nor have I good reason to believe that any other member of my class has either given or received such aid." If, at the conclusion of the examination, the student believed that the signed statement was not true, he simply crossed out his signature to the statement at the head of the answer sheet and handed it in without indicating his reasons for believing that improper aid had been given or received and without indicating the name or names of those whom he believed guilty of improper conduct. The teacher, upon receiving any examination paper on which the signature had been crossed out, reported to the honour committee that in the examination in this particular class on the day indicated, one or more signatures had been crossed out, thus indicating that there was ground for suspecting that improper conduct had occurred. The teacher did not report to the honour committee the name (or names) of those who reported the alleged existence of improper conduct.

In the first meeting of the class following receipt of the teacher's report, a representative of the honour committee met with the class without the teacher being present, and conducted a discussion of the alleged incident. Here again no effort was made to determine either the identity of the student making the report or the students believed to be guilty of improper conduct. The entire emphasis was placed, not

on detection of guilt and punishment of possible offender, but upon the purposes of the honour plan and the significance of the group being above suspicion with respect to its individual and collective integrity. Such discussions might last for the whole of a single class period or they might extend over two or more periods. When the full discussion had been completed, the class was asked to vote again on the question of whether it wished to continue on the honour plan or wished to withdraw from it. To remain on the honour plan, the vote to do so had to be unanimous. In the event of a subsequent report of improper conduct in the same class, the class was automatically dropped from the plan by the honour committee for a period of two months at the end of which period it might, if it wished, vote again on the matter of honour plan membership.

While there was considerable difference of opinion among students concerning the mechanics of the operation of the plan, there was evident general and widespread belief that the institution of the plan has resulted in a great improvement in student consciousness of responsibility and a marked decrease in the incidence of copying and cheating. As one member of the honour committee put it, "We are not concerned with personal exposure of a student who may, for any of a variety of reasons, have been guilty of wrong-doing ; nor are we concerned with punishing offenders. We are interested in helping every student to be honest, to understand what honesty means and to do his best to make honesty the rule in our school. Since we don't try to publicize incidents or punish offenders, although incidents do become known in the school, students do not get that sense of misplaced loyalty to their friends which refuses to admit that they are guilty of wrong-doing. You see, they report the existence of offence rather than the identity of the offenders."

It seemed to be generally agreed that, although the reduction of cheating under the honour plan was a major achievement, the most important result was the creation of a situation in which honesty was "the proper thing" and was so regarded by students and upheld by them as the standard of personal and group behaviour.

E. EXPERIMENTAL AND PIONEER SCHOOLS

The Commission points out (pp. 115-116) the importance of experimentation in education and recommends that "in order to popularize progressive teaching methods and facilitate their introduction 'Experimental' and 'Demonstration' schools should be established and given special encouragement where they exist" (Rec. 12, p. 118).

In endorsing this recommendation we would like to offer the following analysis and comments :

As we see it, and as is indeed in general accord with the Commission's view, all teachers and all schools should have a considerable measure of freedom to plan their courses and to use their own methods. In addition to this general freedom, we recognize two types of educational activity implied in the Commission's recommendation.

Scientific Experimentation. The first is experimental work in the scientific sense of the term, that is, planned experiments carefully conducted so as to safeguard the interests of the children and yet try out the value of new contents or procedures or other elements in the educational programme. Such experimentation may be initiated by schools or by educational authorities. In either case it requires both freedom from ordinary restrictions and financial or other assistance.

Progressive Education. The second is the pioneer work of educators who are trying not primarily to make experiments but to give what they conceive to be better education than the traditional programme provides. Such progressive schools can render service not only to the children attending them, but—if their work is suitably recognized and utilized for the enlightenment of wider circles—to the whole educational system. They are unlikely to come into being to carry out plans drawn up by others, whether education departments or other bodies. They are the creation of pioneers, who have established their schools on their own initiative to give expression to their own ideas. It follows that the attention of educational authorities in their effort to support pioneer education will be centred on finding already existing schools worthy of recognition under this category.

F. RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION

According to the Commission's recommendations concerning religious and moral instruction (Rec. 5, p. 129), "Religious instruction may be given in schools only on a voluntary basis and outside the regular school hours, such instruction being confined to the children of the particular faith concerned and given with the consent of the parents and the managements."

This recommendation appears to us to be in conflict with Part III—Fundamental Rights—Art. 28, paragraph (3), of the Constitution of India, which states that "No person attending any educational institution recognized by the State or receiving aid out of State funds shall be required to take part in any religious instruction that may be imparted in such institution or to attend any religious worship that may be conducted in such institution or in any premises attached thereto unless such person or, if such person is a minor, his guardian has given his consent thereto."

G. TEXT-BOOKS

In our visits to Indian schools we were disappointed with the poor quality of many of the text-books in use, and we agree with the Commission that the earnest efforts of the States and of the Union Ministry of Education should be directed towards the improvement of text-books.

We endorse the recommendations of the Commission regarding text-books (Recommendations 6 to 14, p. 101) with the following modifications :—

- (i) We agree that it is essential that a high power text-book committee should be constituted in each State including both educationalists and members of the lay public of high repute; but we do not think it practicable or necessary to specify the occupations of the lay representatives.
- (ii) We do not consider it desirable that State governments and educational authorities should take up the production of text-books. We however, think, that State governments should undertake the responsibility of organizing educational research which will offer material for the production of better text-books and general reading books. Such research may be directed, among other things, to a study of children's interests and attainments at various levels, the gradation of language material needed in language text-books, and the types of questions and exercises that would be most useful to pupils.

76. Libraries of Text-Books and Teaching Aids. *We recommend that the State and Central Governments should establish libraries of text-books and other teaching aids, including both Indian and foreign productions.*

Provision should be made in these libraries for exchange of books and teaching aids and also for periodical exhibitions. A good central library of this kind was seen by us in Copenhagen. In Santa Barbara, California, we saw a very useful 'Educational Service Centre' which had science and audio-visual equipment and a library for the use of county schools with an enrolment of less than 900.

H. METHODS OF TEACHING

We subscribe to what has been said by the Commission (pp. 102-109) concerning dynamic methods of teaching. In our opinion the treatment accorded to this important topic in these pages is an excellent, short treatise on methods. We have not considered it necessary, for the purposes of this report, merely to repeat or recapitulate the Commission's words. We wish, however, to add certain observations of a general

nature and to offer some suggestions as to how the Commission's recommendations (Recommendations 1-8, pp. 117-118) may be implemented by practising teachers.

We have two observations of a general character to make.

First, we do not believe there is any such thing as the 'best' method of teaching, when applied to the large body of teachers. We believe that methods are 'best', only as they apply to the infinite variety of circumstances and conditions existing in given situations. That method is 'best', therefore, which best expresses the particular abilities, experiences and personality of the teacher, working with a particular group of children, under particular conditions,—always keeping in mind the objectives being sought in the teaching. From this point of view, there will be a wide range of 'best' methods, the criterion of evaluation being their effectiveness in terms of the objectives.

To be truly dynamic, methods must be the unique expression of the human variables present in the teacher and his pupils, seeking always to link up "the teacher and his pupils into an organic relationship with constant mutual interaction....." (p. 102, Commission's Report). To be 'best', or even good, methods must be an expression of the creative imagination and individual ingenuity of the teacher, working in a particular situation. Methods which are excellent for one teacher may be dull and routine when attempted by another teacher. Again, methods which may be excellent when employed by a given teacher in one situation, may prove to be singularly ineffective when employed by the same teacher in a different situation or with a different group of pupils. For these reasons, we do not believe that methods can be taught as such, although we do believe that examples of good methods can be demonstrated and that the underlying principles of good methodology can be taught, intellectually understood and made to influence teachers in their development of good methods.

The object of teacher training, in so far as methods are concerned, should not be the training of teachers in the employment of uniform or identical methods. Neither should the purpose of instructional supervision be to tell teachers how they must teach but, rather, to assist them to develop from their own capacities and interests, methods of teaching which best enable them to be creative. Teaching, we believe, is an art. The artist ceases to be an artist when he ceases to be creative. Creativity ceases when the teacher succumbs to stereotypes of practice and, thereby, loses his urge and capacity for developing better and more effective ways of attaining his objectives.

Here, we would wish to draw a distinction between techniques and methods. Techniques, we believe, can be taught as discrete skills and there can be no serious objection to the training of teachers in the effective use of such skills. No one skill, however, is effective or even desirable under all of the infinite variety of circumstances faced by the teacher. Methods, on the other hand, will develop out of an equally infinite combination of such skills, the catalyst for which is the creative

imagination and personality of the teacher. Viewed in this light, the purpose of teacher education, in so far as methods are concerned, is not to make him a good 'activity method' teacher, a good 'project method' teacher or a good 'Dalton Plan' teacher but to make him a good teacher. He will be a good teacher, not in terms of his skill in using specialized techniques as discrete things, but in terms of his capacity to create for himself that combination of skills which is best adapted to the needs of the group. Emphasis on methods, then, should be directed to arming the teacher with a variety of skills or techniques and then freeing him to develop his own methods, in which process he will utilize such of these techniques as are appropriate and will infuse into their use the unique character of his own creative imagination and personality. Techniques are specific tools ; methods are the process. Techniques may be relatively inflexible and stereotyped ; methods must never be stereotyped and must remain flexible.

Second, dynamic methods of teaching, as described by the Commission, require teachers with the capacity and imagination to be creative. Here again, as in so many other sections of this report dealing with teachers, we wish to emphasize the extreme importance of attracting to teaching and retaining in teaching the kind of persons who have the promise and capacity to be dynamic. Talk about dynamic methods is of little use unless schools can command the services of dynamic personalities—the first is impossible without the second. Hence, we return full circle round to the crucial importance of the teacher as a person.

At the risk of labouring the point, it seems to us that the real solution of the problem of dynamic methods lies in the procurement of the right kind of personnel. Again, we must emphasize that this cannot be done unless effective steps are taken to improve sharply the economic, professional and social status of teachers. We are not unaware of the implications of this and other similar statements made in this report. The goal of recruiting, training and retaining in service the kinds of teachers needed, in the numbers demanded by the secondary schools of India, will cost money, great effort and considerable time.

Examinations. Although we have dealt with the subject of examinations in another section of this report, it is not amiss to refer to them here as one of the instructional devices or techniques available to the teacher. As we see it, examinations have three evaluative functions, in addition to such other functions as diagnosis and inventorying. The evaluative functions may be described as : *first*, to determine the quality of the individual's performance in comparison with the performances of others ; *second*, to determine the quality of performance in comparison with an external standard ; *third*, to determine the quality of individual performance today as compared with the performance of the same individual at some prior point.

It is our opinion that all three evaluative functions have their proper place, but it is in the third of these uses of examinations that they are most fully justified as an instrument of instruction. When examinations are used to measure individual growth or improvement,

for the purpose of motivating or guiding further growth, they fulfil their highest purpose in the educative process. Our observations lead us to conclude that in Indian secondary schools examinations are used almost exclusively for the first two purposes, and but rarely used for the purpose of measuring growth and directing further improvement.

The great danger in examinations is that they tend to become determinants of the ends of the educative process rather than means for the accomplishment of these ends. In such circumstances, the individual is likely to be forgotten and lost sight of. The first purpose stresses competition ; and the second purpose fails to take account of individual differences. When used as a device or technique for measuring individual growth for the purpose of promoting further growth, examinations have a special value for the teacher.

Illustrations of Good Teaching Techniques. The Commission has made (pp. 117-118) eight recommendations with respect to methods of teaching. Quite properly these recommendations deal largely with general principles and purposes which should undergird methods. The Commission has not sought to give examples of specific practices which illustrate these principles. In the suggestions given below, we have attempted to draw upon our observations in India and the other countries visited, as well as our experience, in citing illustrations of how teachers have sought to implement in practice the principles enunciated by the Commission. In citing these illustrations, we wish to caution that they are examples of specific practices or techniques which we have seen creative teachers using in their instruction. No one of them, taken alone, can be regarded as a method. Attempts to adopt them without regard to varying conditions will prove of little value since, to be really helpful, they must be derived from the total situation rather than accepted uncritically.

(i) In one school the teacher of a course in *Current Problems* uses the first week or two weeks of the term : first in discussing with the class the purpose and nature of the course ; second, in eliciting from student their suggestions as to the kinds of problems they think might be included in the course ; third, in deciding as a group which of these problems seem to them to be most important and to hold the greatest interest for them.

Following this orientation of the group as to the purpose and nature of the course, and their active, responsible participation in determining the general content of the course, the group is encouraged and permitted to select those particular problems in which they are most interested and would like to work. Thereafter, students with similar interests may work together as a sub-group or committee, responsible for discovering the available sources of information, developing new sources of their own, organizing local surveys or investigations, and generally making themselves the authorities on that particular subject within the group. At appropriate times, the groups report their findings to the whole class, prepare briefs and other materials and assume the leadership in discussion. The teacher assumes the role of consultant, resource person and critic.

Such a procedure implies freedom of the teacher to determine the content of his course (within general limitations) and requires flexibility within which to work. This practice has been seen to operate with equal effectiveness with groups in the upper levels of the high school and with pupils of the middle school ages.

(ii) Several schools visited in India, Denmark, the United Kingdom and the United States followed the general practice, especially with the older students, of making 'long-term assignments', covering two or three weeks of work or, in one instance, as much as six weeks of work. This device had a fourfold advantage; it encouraged pupils to devote attention to organizing their work and their time; it placed emphasis on the articulation of discrete facts or items of information into a pattern of total understanding; it provided for progress of pupils at individual rates, according to varying pressure and abilities; it 'freed' the teacher to devote more time and attention to the needs of individual students.

Such a practice makes demands on the time, energy, and imagination of teachers beyond those involved in setting daily page assignments for pupils. A further great advantage lies in the encouragement to pupils to depend less on single texts and to utilize library and other sources of information. Furthermore, it emphasizes the responsibility of the individual pupil.

(iii) In one school visited, the teachers of art, mechanical drawing, and wood shop were co-operating by making their facilities and assistance available to pupils in planning and executing particular problems of production. For illustration, a pupil in the wood shop might decide (with the approval of the teacher) to build a chair. The mechanical drawing teacher would co-operate in preparing the working drawings, while the wood shop provided the facilities for selection of materials, the estimation of costs, and the actual construction.

Similar co-operative efforts have been observed in successful operation between teachers of textiles, dressmaking and fashion design; between teachers of art and music; between teachers of music and physical education; between teachers of dramatics and wood shop and art.

The great value of such co-operative procedures is the integration of knowledge and skill on the part of the student, the practical application of knowledge to productive activities, and the enhancement of a professional spirit within the staff.

(iv) The librarians in two American high schools visited by the team maintained a library service group composed of students. Student members of these groups were met, as a group, at least one hour per week for demonstration and instruction in many of the skills required in processing, accessioning, cataloguing, shelving, circulating and repairing books. Members of these groups assumed many responsibilities for library activities, devoting one or more available hours a week to these responsibilities. They issued books at the charging desks, prepared books for shelving, received books being returned and reshelfed them, collected groups of books requested by teachers for

classroom use and delivered them to the teacher, prepared library exhibits, maintained a library bulletin board, made clipping files and other vertical file materials. Such services not only materially extended the services of the library more widely than would be possible for the librarian, but also developed library consciousness among both students and staff. Furthermore, they provided opportunities for practical applications of knowledge gained in classroom instruction and, through close contact with books, motivated pupils to read more widely.

(v) In one school, blessed with a relatively large number of corridor bulletin boards, each bulletin board was assigned on a rotating system to an instructional department or some school activity. Student committees were formed from the respective departments or groups whose responsibility it was to keep the bulletin boards alive with fresh, timely and interesting materials. The student chairmen of these committees formed a Central Bulletin Boards Committee whose function it was to assign space on a rotating and need basis, and to plan for their effective use in furtherance of school purposes and programmes. Materials were furnished by the art department, as required, and a teacher served as adviser to the group.

Such a practice helped to build pride in the appearance of the school, utilized available resources for effective visual education and gave pupils experience of a practical character in the principles and practices of selection and display.

(vi) In certain schools visited, provisions were made by teachers for pupils in their classes to proceed at rates of speed more nearly suited to their abilities and previous preparation than is possible when all are treated in identical fashion. Basically, the class would be divided into three groups, the first group being composed of those whose rate of learning was most rapid and whose mastery of basic skills or knowledge was highest; the second group was composed of those whose speed and proficiency was average; the third group was composed of those requiring special and, perhaps, individual assistance. All three levels would meet as a group for two or three hours of the week, the ablest group being permitted to spend the other two or three hours in the library or in other appropriate ways in enriching and extending their knowledge. The average group might be permitted to do the same thing for one hour per week, while the least able group remained largely in the classroom with the teacher and received the particular kind of assistance and instruction needed by them. Such a device seems particularly appropriate where school policy does not favour homogeneous grouping or streaming, or where, by reason of numbers, it is not possible to follow such a procedure.

The success of this procedure depends, of course, on the ability and willingness of the teacher to deal with pupils 'according to their needs', and it also requires a library which is available and can be thus used.

(vii) In the United States it is common practice in the secondary schools to 'promote by subjects' rather than to 'promote by year'.

Since pupils not only differ from each other in general intellectual ability but also differ in their special aptitudes, promotion by subjects allows the student to proceed in each area of study at the pace he is competent to maintain and does not require the repetition of materials already mastered,—as a concession to mere organizational convenience. Thus a pupil who may experience great difficulty in mastering a foreign language may, at the same time, be superior in mathematics or science. To retain him in a situation which requires dull and wasteful repetition of mathematical processes already mastered, simply because he is not proficient in language is unjust, fails to take account of individual differences, leads to potential disciplinary or behaviour problems born of boredom, and fails to develop within the individual the sense of pride in accomplishment which derives from recognition of such accomplishment.

(viii) It is common practice in the secondary schools in England to divide pupils into 'streams', called A, B and C streams. The A stream is composed of the ablest and brightest pupils intellectually, the B stream of the average pupils and the C stream of the pupils of limited abilities. Although variations in the curriculum are usually provided for each of these groups, a great advantage in such streaming in core subject matter areas is that the content and methods can be modified according to varying abilities and needs. All may be taught a minimum core of content deemed essential for every student, but the A stream pupils will greatly exceed this minimum through enrichment. Furthermore, while the pupils in the C stream may require considerable drill work, those in the A stream will require relatively little, and can therefore, devote their attention to expanding their knowledge and sharpening their skills. In many secondary schools in the United States, a system intended to serve many of these same purposes involves the grouping of pupils into 'honours', 'regular' and 'general' classes in the same subject or course, but pupils would be thus classified and scheduled in each of the subjects being studied rather than on a general classification basis. Thus, a pupil might be in an honours class in English, a regular class in social studies and a general class in mathematics or science.

(ix) In the twelfth grade in many American high schools, the pupils are required, as a part of their work in English, to prepare a source theme. The purposes of such a theme are to provide scope for individual and independent work, to instruct in the techniques of library and other research, to furnish experience in the organization of materials including format, annotating, footnotes and bibliography. Selection of subject matter for such themes is made in individual conferences between pupils and teachers and derives largely from the individual pupil's interests. Classes meet as a group twice each week and the remainder of the time devoted to English is used for small group discussions and individual conferences or for reading, research and writing.

(x) It is not uncommon in many schools we visited for class groups to engage in pupil-planned projects directly related to the subject of study but not necessarily specified in the course content. Illustrations of such projects may be cited as follows: a Latin class prepares and publishes a weekly newspaper in Latin; an English class studying "The

"Lady of the Lake" prepares and presents a dramatization ; a French class writes an original dramatic sketch for presentation to the school ; a physics class prepares a demonstration of jet propulsion ; a mathematics class conducts an actual survey of the school grounds as the basis of laying out grade lines and developing a plan of grounds improvement.

(xi) In two schools visited in India, the work being accomplished by the pupils in art impressed us with its fresh, vigorous, free and expressive quality. Observation of the teachers at work with boys and girls disclosed that, after necessary minimum instruction in essential skills such as handling materials, 'problems' were 'set' for the group but that individual children were free to work out the problem in their own way, choosing their own medium of expression among those available and relying on the teachers for advice. Here the teacher worked with pupils as individuals, seeking to help each pupil to express his ideas creatively according to his own imaginative powers, rather than insisting that prescribed rules be followed. Our observations were further borne out in conversation with the teachers. As one of them stated to a member of our team, "I try to get them to do things in their own way. I don't try to teach them art ; I try to help them to teach themselves." In both of these instances, although the classes were large, the instruction was individual.

(xii) We have seen methods similar to those described in the above illustration being used in the teaching of crafts. In one class in wood-work, for example, the group was being instructed in the techniques of making and using different kinds of joints. After suitable demonstration, pupils proceeded to apply the knowledge gained by making various and different types of articles which required joints. Here, the selection of the kind of wood to be used, the simple design of the articles to be made, the choice of the articles themselves—these were all matters of decision by the pupils individually. The role of the teacher was that of adviser and, when help was needed, as expert demonstrator or consultant. Here, again, the class was of normal size but pupils were receiving individual instruction.

Such illustrations as those given above could be multiplied many times, and they have been presented here merely to illustrate our point about the flexibility and creative character of methods. We believe that dynamic methods are possible of attainment only if they utilize the powers of imagination and the creative abilities of both teachers and students. No prescription for such methods can be written ; illustrations only can be presented. Discrete skills or techniques can be taught ; their development must inevitably rest with the teacher.

In endorsing the recommendations of the Commission having to do with methods we have one further observation to make. Such methods imply and require certain supporting conditions. First, teacher training institutions must set the example in their own methods and procedures employed in the training of teachers ; second, young people with the capacity to be imaginative, resourceful and creative must be recruited to the profession ; third, such trained and qualified teachers

must be given freedom to develop dynamic methods ; fourth, teachers must have proper facilities and working conditions. The first requisite applies to the training institution ; the second applies to recruitment ; the third and the fourth have special reference to the entire structure of educational administration, control and supervision.

77. **Libraries.** We have referred frequently in this section of the report dealing with methods of teaching to the role of the school library. We have noted with great interest and approval the attention given by the Commission to the matter of library facilities and services. We agree with the statements made by the Commission (pp. 110-114) concerning the place of the library in secondary schools, and we endorse their three summary recommendations (Recommendations 9-11, p. 118).

Quite frankly, we do not believe that any Indian secondary school can be expected to attain the characteristics contemplated by the Commission unless it has an adequate library. Certainly, attempts to develop dynamic methods of teaching will be seriously hampered, and, indeed, may be well-nigh futile unless teachers have this important resource upon which to draw.

We recommend that the State departments of education take all necessary steps to see that every school, government or non-government, has adequate library facilities, including trained library personnel.

To help achieve this position, we offer the following suggestions :—

(i) Adequate library facilities should be regarded as an essential part of the educational provision in every government school, and such provision by managements should be made a prerequisite for government recognition of and/or grants-in-aid to private schools.

(ii) For purposes of determining the amounts of grants-in-aid to private schools, the salaries of trained library personnel performing library services in schools should be regarded as on a par with the salaries of other professional personnel.

(iii) Suitable criteria should be established for determining the adequacy of library provision. (We note here the excellent work done in this field for American secondary schools by the American Library Association and the regional Associations of Colleges and Secondary Schools, serving as accrediting agencies).

(iv) Suitable financial support formulas should be developed for determining minimum annual maintenance and operating needs for school libraries. Grants-in-aid should be withheld from private institutions unless such minimum support is provided and expended.

(v) In addition to the 'in-course' training in library services and use provided for in the training colleges, and the 'refresher' courses recommended by the Commission (Rec. 10, p. 118), suitable provision should also be made for in-service courses for secondary school teachers,

(vi) The system of 'free access' to books recommended by the Commission (p. 111) should also apply to the operation of the library itself—that is, the library should be open to students at all times during regular school hours and at such other reasonable times as students may have need of access to its facilities.

(vii) Where school libraries, established and supported by private managements, are, as recommended by the Commission (Rec. 11, p. 118), made available to general public use, the 'extra' cost of such services should be borne by the government.

I. GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING

We endorse the four recommendations made by the Commission (p. 135) with respect to guidance and counselling services and facilities, and wish to give added emphasis to certain aspects of the guidance and counselling function of schools through the following suggestions :—

(i) Counselling is essentially a matter of personal understanding and relationship between the counsellor and the person being counselled. Every teacher is, consciously or unconsciously, a counsellor; therefore, every teacher should have an awareness of that role and some knowledge and skill in playing it. It is our belief that every training college should include in its curriculum provision for specific attention to the role of the individual teacher in the guidance function.

(ii) We see good reason for each secondary school, through provisions which could be made within itself as an institution, conducting an in-service training programme devoted to assisting teachers to develop attitudes and techniques appropriate to the guidance function. Certainly, there is no sound reason why teachers in any school should be ignorant of any of the phases of the programme of that school.

(iii) Guidance and counselling of pupils at the secondary school stage is not something that can be conducted merely between the pupil and the teacher or the guidance officer or career master. Parents have an inseparable interest in what is being advised and in the making of decisions affecting the child's educational programme. Therefore, a guidance programme should seek to include the parents, and definite provision should be made for so doing.

(iv) We endorse the Commission's recommendation concerning career conferences and wish further to implement that recommendation by urging that the schools make vigorous efforts to tap the human resources available within their own areas in organizing such conferences. We do not oppose the 'importation' of experts or successful men and

women from outside the community, but we do assert that each community has its own areas of diamonds which deserve to be tapped. By so doing, local interest in and support of the school can be developed along with serving the specific function of the career conference.

In the section of our report on *Education and Employment*, more detailed suggestions have been made concerning the role of the guidance and counselling services in relation to the 'world of work'. Although we think of guidance in the broad sense of the term and would avoid, so far as possible, breaking it down into a whole series of sub-divisions, such as educational guidance, social guidance, personal guidance and vocational guidance, we wish here to emphasize the great importance of including adequate attention to vocational counselling in the guidance programme of the secondary school.

We believe that a fully developed vocational counselling programme should include provision of four related services :—

- (i) aptitude and interest inventories of the pupils, supported where possible by appropriate tests designed to determine these traits ;
- (ii) direct personal counselling with pupils for the purpose of helping them understand their special abilities and interests as they relate to the world of work ;
- (iii) specific, accurate and current information about areas of employment, the kinds of jobs available, the training required and the opportunities offered in such jobs ;
- (iv) assistance in obtaining suitable employment at the point where the individual is employable and desires employment.

The ways in which these vocational counselling services will be organized in particular schools will vary with local conditions—the size and character of the school, the nature of the local economy and related services available from other agencies than the school.

J. EXAMINATIONS AND EVALUATION

The existing evils of the present system of external examinations have been described by the Commission (pp. 145-147) as follows :—

- (i) "The examinations determine not only the contents of education but also the methods of teaching—in fact, the entire approach to education. They have so pervaded the entire atmosphere of school life that they have become the main motivating force for all effort on the part of pupil as well as teacher.

- (ii) "It is not uncommon to hear such statements as 'so and so is a good teacher because his pupils show a high percentage of success in the final examination.'.....To judge the work of the teacher by the percentage of passes of his pupils in the examination is to keep alive the old and exploded system of payment by results.
- (iii) "Because of the close connection between employment and the passing of external examinations, the average parent is more interested in his child passing that examination than in anything else.
- (iv) ".....the examinations to-day dictate the curriculum instead of following it, prevent any experimentation, hamper the proper treatment of subjects and sound methods of teaching, foster a dull uniformity rather than originality, encourage the average pupil to concentrate too rigidly upon too narrow a field and thus help him to develop wrong values in education."

We agree unreservedly with the Commission's indictment of the evils in the present system of external examinations, our observations and experience tallying completely with those of the Commission. To the Commission's criticisms, we wish to add two further observations concerning other aspects of the present system :—

(i) We had considerable evidence that the all too prevalent practice of private tuitions was closely linked with the pressures on both pupils and teachers arising from the external examinations. The Commission has recommended—and we have endorsed the recommendation—that the practice of private tuitions be abolished excepting in the occasional and justified cases. The abolition of the evils of private tuitions, we believe, would be powerfully assisted by the complete re-organization and reorientation of the system of external examinations.

(ii) The maintenance of the present structure and organization of external examinations imposes a top-heavy load on the total educational system. The time, money and energy now required to prepare, print, distribute, read and report the results of these examinations represents a significant drain on resources which might be better applied to more useful educational purposes.

Ideally, we believe that the standards and repute of schools should be such that external examinations, excepting for certain special and highly restricted purposes, would neither be required nor expected. The development of such standards, maintained and reported with complete integrity on the part of schools, is an ultimate goal towards which to work. Under present circumstances, however, we do not believe that the abolition of all external examinations is either feasible or desirable.

We support the Commission's recommendations that—

- (i) there be only one public examination, at the end of the secondary course ;

- (ii) the public examination need not be compulsory for all pupils ;
- (iii) every pupil who completes the school course should get a certificate based on school records ;
- (iv) a system of cumulative school records, covering personality, interests, co-curricular activities and social adjustments as well as scholastic attainments, be maintained for every pupil throughout his school career;
- (v) the certificate awarded at the end of the secondary course should show (a) the result attained in the public examination, if taken, (b) a statement based on the results of periodic internal tests, and (c) a statement based on the cumulative school record.

We also agree with the Commission that measures should be taken to shift the emphasis in school from the annual examinations to periodic tests, that objective test items should be included in all types of examinations along with subjective essay-type questions, and that when the latter are used they should be of a nature demanding "rational understanding of the problems and a general mastery of the subject matter."

With respect to symbolical marking recommended by the Commission we believe that this system requires further study as applied to public examinations.

While endorsing the recommendations of the Commission, we wish to make the following further comments and recommendations:—

78. External Examination. *With respect to the external examination, instead of a required minimum of six subjects, we recommend an examination structure similar to that used in the English General Certificate of Education (G. C. E.), where any number of subjects from one upwards may be taken.*

This recommendation is particularly designed with a view to minimizing the 'catastrophic' effects of the external examination and eliminating the idea of a "Day of Judgment" which may decide in a few hours the whole of the rest of one's career.

This 'catastrophic' effect would undoubtedly be decreased if the result of the examination were not the only element taken into account. We agree with the Commission that very considerable weight should be given to the record of a pupil's work and achievement throughout his school life.

The catastrophic effect would be still further reduced if the subject examinations (where more than one were being taken) were allowed to be spread over a series of stages. This procedure is provided for in the English General Certificate of Education. The examinations leading to this certificate are subject examinations. A candidate may take any

number from one upwards; he may continue at subsequent sittings to add to the number of subject examinations taken; or he may take again a subject in which he has previously failed without any requirement that he take other subjects as well.

79. Preparation of Objective Type Tests. *We are not convinced that the state bureaus of education, as proposed by the Commission, will be competent, even in collaboration with the training colleges, to prepare satisfactory objective type tests. We recommend an all-India effort in this matter such as might be envisaged by the creation of an All-India Educational Research Centre.*

Such a centre could command resources not available to single States for the prosecution of basic and applied research in the field of tests and measurements, making such use as might seem desirable of the vast amount of material in this field in other countries. Although we believe that a state bureau of education could hardly hope to command adequate resources for this task, we do believe that such state organizations could play a valuable and necessary role in devising regional adaptations of Indian tests.

We believe it worthwhile to record our further view that, given the reforms in the external examination procedures recommended by the Commission and endorsed by us with certain modifications, a certain degree of pressure will still remain as long as external examinations are used. This would be inevitable if for no other reason than the fact that universities will undoubtedly continue to require for some time to come that candidates offer examinations in a number of subjects. The reforms recommended should go far to eliminate or alleviate the present evils, but these reforms alone will not accomplish the whole of the task. How the examinations are administered, the spirit in which they are administered, and the degree to which provision is made for taking school records into account will also determine, in substantial degree, the effectiveness of the reforms in examination structure. For these reasons we wish to refer to certain practices or conditions we observed in other countries which we found of interest and which may offer suggestions to those responsible for carrying out the recommended reforms.

(i) In Denmark, where there is an external examination at the end of the secondary school stage, it is the universal practice for the school teachers to suggest a limited syllabus in each subject for the examination. The inspector approves of the suggested syllabuses and selects the subjects for the examination, which means (i) that the candidates are examined only in some subjects, and (ii) that the examination questions deal with subject matter and understandings provided for in the syllabus in use in the school. Except in Danish, in other languages and in mathematics, the examinations are conducted orally. They are conducted jointly by censors appointed by the inspector and by the teachers of the candidates. The final examination, both written and oral, carries 50 per cent of the total number of marks. The remaining 50 per cent are awarded on the work of the candidate in school. Of the maximum marks in the final examination, one-third are allotted for the written examination and two-thirds for the oral examination. The written examination is conducted by a commission.

(ii) In Scotland, where the substance of the external examination is set by authorities outside the school (on which subject teachers are represented), provision is made for review of all cases of failure and, where circumstances justify it, suitable adjustments are made in the interests of justice and equity.

(iii) In the United States where no general system of external examinations exists, it is a general practice for employers to accept school certificates or diplomas as adequate evidence of educational attainment leading to employment. Similarly, admission to colleges and universities is generally possible without any required external examination other than tests which may be set for purposes of guidance or placement in courses. The examinations set by the College Entrance Examination Board, while required by some higher institutions, are not so much admission examinations as instruments for guidance and placement. In New York State, where a system of Regents Examinations is in use, no school is required to use these examinations, and, in schools where they are used, it is a general practice to permit pupils to decide whether they wish to take them or not.



K. EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT

Preparation for the World of Work. The following quotation from an address given at a week-end course on 'Attitude to Employment,' held in Cheshire, England, in February 1953, will help to realize what role education is conceived to play in the matter of preparation for employment.

"The Education Service is going through a tremendous transition period as a result of the Education Act of 1944. All previous Education Acts were based on the fundamental principle of education that each child should acquire certain skills in reading, writing and arithmetic and factual information. The 1944 Act, in an entirely new conception of education, provided for a progressive system of education (Primary, Secondary and Further), the school 'contributing towards the physical, mental, spiritual and moral development of each individual' in a manner suited to the pupil's age, ability and aptitude. Many educationalists are ahead of this and would add that the school should also contribute to the preparation of each individual as a member of a democratic society, especially as a citizen, worker, home maker and parent."

In the modern conception of the aims of education, it is recognized that to prepare pupils for the world of work is one of the functions of the school. It is also being gradually realized that, in the modern world, this preparation has to take a more specific form than a general or liberal education calculated to fit pupils for any kind of work. Attempts at

imparting a purely liberal education to all and sundry, and at all stages, have resulted in "a one way track of academic studies" and "an indiscriminate rush to universities," with unemployment of the educated as a natural consequence. The school's function of preparing pupils for work must, therefore, be thought of more specifically in terms of (i) the pupils' abilities, aptitudes and interests, (ii) the terminal points in a system of education, and (iii) the occupational structure in the surrounding environment.

Terminal Points in Education. In a scheme of education which makes provision for free education or for a liberal system of scholarships, the terminal points in the case of individual pupils would depend upon their aptitudes and abilities. That, however, not being the case in India yet, the terminal points happen to be determined largely by the economic condition and the culture of the parents.

Terminal points* may occur at the ages of :

- 14+ at the end of the elementary stage,
- 17+ at the end of the high school stage,
- 18+ at the end of the higher secondary stage,
- 21+ at the end of the general course of the university stage,
- 22+ or 23+ at the end of the professional course of the university stage.

These terminal points must be related to the economic and occupational structure in the country through the provision of a sound general education combined with the right kind of special courses. At each stage, the courses provided must cater for the needs of those terminating their education then and those continuing beyond. The differentiation between the two categories of pupils cannot be sharp, since it is only at the end of each stage that many pupils and their parents will make a definite decision. A sharp differentiation may also lead to rigid, unhealthy distinctions. A guidance and counselling service in the school will prove to be useful in this respect.

The Role of Electives and Diversified Courses. It is to meet this situation that we have suggested electives in the period from 11+ to 14+ and diversified courses in the period from 14+ to 17+ or 18+. The objects of these electives and diversified courses as we conceive them are :

- (i) giving an all-round education to pupils with varying interests, abilities and aptitudes, and
- (ii) preparing pupils for certain broad types of occupation in a general way and not for direct entry into occupations.

The demand of an all-round type of education must not be sacrificed at any stage; yet a fair amount of competence in the form of technical skills and related knowledge must be secured, so that a pupil deciding

* When the Constitution aims at compulsory education up to the age of 14, earlier terminal points need not be taken into consideration.

to enter an occupation at a terminal point will be able to maintain his own. Or, to put it in another way, the study of a diversified course of a practical type should not stand in the way of an all-round education; yet it should not be so diffused and purposeless that a pupil who decides to enter an occupation at a terminal point finds himself helpless, with no skills developed. To attain this standard the diversified course would require a sufficient allotment of school time and a seriousness of purpose in its pursuit. The competence achieved in the matter of skills should be such as would prove useful to pupils whether they pursue the study of the subject at a higher stage or whether they decide to enter an occupation.

Apprenticeship Training. In the latter case, it is not implied that a pupil coming out of the school should be ready to take up a skilled job in an occupation immediately. All that is meant is that he should be ready to benefit by some intensive training either on the job itself or as a preparation for it. An entry into an occupation should be preceded by a period of intensive occupational training or it should be accompanied by a system of apprenticeship training. The co-operation of trade and industry is essential in this matter. An apprenticeship act, making the employment of apprentices with certain educational qualifications compulsory seems to be a necessity. The apprenticeship system in a small country like Denmark impressed us with its efficiency and its comprehensive character. There was provision for systematic training for apprentices in 130 different types of occupations, for example, in all engineering trades, in all building trades, in business, in hotels and restaurants, for bakers, tailors, carpenters and shop assistants. Thus young people entering these occupations had the opportunity to develop technical skills while on the job. A description of the system of apprenticeship training in Great Britain appears in the Appendices (See Appendix VII).

Levels of Employment. The entry into occupations can be at various levels and will require different degrees of competence. In this connection we have found the following employment and educational structure suggested in the Report of the Committee for Educational Reform in Mysore most illuminating (cf. p. 249 of the Report).

- (a) Professions—Law, medicine, engineering etc.—Education at the university level.
- (b) Semi-professional level—Supervisors, managers, technicians, etc.—Higher secondary stage.
- (c) Skilled workers—Tailors, carpenters, mechanics—Secondary stage.
- (d) Semi-skilled workers—Machine operators, canemen, greasers, cobblers, etc.—Apprenticeship.
- (e) Unskilled workers—Labourers—No special occupational training is necessary except what one learns on the job.

We presume that semi-skilled and unskilled workers will have completed the elementary school stage at the age of 14+, or in the case of jobs like those of machine operators, even the high school stage.

The only modifications we would suggest in this analysis are as follows :—

- (i) The addition of another terminal point between the secondary school stage and the university stage in the form of the junior college stage which will be linked up with the semi-professional level in certain occupations like engineering, food processing, horticulture, etc., through two-year terminal courses of a vocational and terminal nature that will be offered at this stage. For this level, qualifications and competence higher than those possible of attainment at the secondary school stage appear to be necessary.
- (ii) The provision of some general occupational training at the 11+ to 14+ stage through electives. Even semi-skilled workers such as machine operators, canemen, cobblers, etc., or unskilled workers such as shop assistants, warehouse workers, junior waiters in restaurants or agriculture labourers will require some occupational training, not so much in the form of technical competence as of a certain orientation of attitudes, some manual skill acquired through craft activities, and related knowledge. It is to this end that we have suggested electives at the higher elementary stage.

In suggesting different levels of the occupational structure and in linking them up with the different levels of education, we have applied more widely the Commission's recommendation (Rec. 41, p. 207) with regard to recruitment to the public services. The Commission recommends that "selection for and recruitment to public services should be made successively at definite age periods, i. e., the age of 16 to 18, 19 to 21, 22 to 24." Such recruitment at successive stages not merely to the public services, but also to the other occupations and professions will meet several ends. It will stop an indiscriminate rush of students to the university by diverting them to the more practical types of courses at the earlier stages. It will lead students into channels of employment suited to their ability and education at the proper time. By restoring to the higher studies at the university stage their proper status, it will secure higher standards of work at the university. The programme of continued education that we have suggested in our report in the section on the *Organizational Pattern* will enable young people who are employed to continue their professional or general education as they desire.

Need for Careful Planning. There is another aspect of employment that must be considered. The matter does not end with schools doing their job of preparing their pupils for certain occupations either for direct entry or for entry after further intensive training for short periods. If pupils thus prepared do not actually find entry into fields of work appropriate to their abilities, interests and training, there will

result a sense of frustration not only on the part of the pupils but also on the part of the schools and the education system as a whole. To avoid this, two conditions are necessary:

(i) The number of students admitted to a course, especially to a practical course, must not exceed the demand for trained persons in the particular occupation in the surrounding environment. Some systematic planning therefore, must go into the provision of these courses. We realize that such planning is at present beset with difficulties because the needs of industry in India have not yet expanded to their full capacity. Educational planning cannot eradicate unemployment unless it forms a part of a wider national economic plan.

(ii) The second condition necessary, though not as fundamental as the first, is the provision of an effective youth employment service, working in close co-operation with schools on the one hand and with business and industry on the other. Youth employment is a responsibility of the government and the public and can best be undertaken by the education department working in conjunction with representatives of industry and business.

Youth Employment Service in England. A study of the movement in England will throw some light on the question. A youth employment service in one form or another has been in operation in England since 1910. In 1948, with the passing of the Employment and Training Act, the Ministry of Labour and National Service set up a Central Youth Employment Executive to co-ordinate and be responsible for youth employment generally. Local education authorities were asked to decide if they would be responsible for all matters concerning the employment of boys and girls up to 18 in their areas. If they accepted this responsibility, the Ministry of Labour and National Service would pay 75 per cent of the cost of running an approved scheme. Most local education authorities undertook the service.

The youth employment service has three main functions :—

- (i) vocational guidance to children intending shortly to leave schools ;
- (ii) placement of young people in employment ;
- (iii) continued guidance and replacement of young people in employment.

In each area a youth employment officer is appointed, with an appropriate staff of assistants and clerks. He has an office, with sub-offices if necessary. He has a committee consisting of representatives of teachers' organizations, employers, employees, the university, social services, colleges of commerce and technical colleges to guide him. Representatives of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, and the Ministry of Education and the Inspector of Factories also attend the meetings of the committee.

The youth employment officer is expected to keep in close and continuous touch with both the schools and industry. Each term he talks to the pupils expecting to leave and later interviews each of them. Parents are invited to attend the interview, and many do so. Employers notify the officer of vacancies, and he tries to place each pupil in a job suited to his ability and training.

Various methods of 'after-care' are used. Most youth employment officers write personal letters to young people a short while after they have entered employment, inviting them to come and discuss their jobs. 'Open nights' to which young people and their parents are invited are also frequent.

When the service is operated by the Ministry of Labour and National Service, it is done through the Ministry's Employment Bureaus, a separate section being reserved for young people.

Co-operation of Industry, Business and Commerce. In all the three countries we visited we found that there was effective machinery for employment as well as vocational guidance of young people leaving school. What made the machinery effective was, first, the general employment situation in the country, and second, the active co-operation of industry, business and commerce. The education authorities sought the help of industry and commerce at all the following stages : —

- (i) in deciding whether to start a vocational course, as judged by the need for persons trained in the vocation in the surrounding environment and the capacity of the vocation to absorb trained people ;
- (ii) in drawing up the courses of studies and fixing the requirements of equipment, etc.
- (iii) in the actual conduct of the course—industrial concerns allowing the students to receive their practical training in their factories or supplying the necessary equipment ;
- (iv) in the placement or employment of students completing their training.

In the vocational schools of Buffalo, New York State, we found that 97 per cent of the pupils completing their courses were placed in employment. Even in the case of those taking up general education courses attempts are made to place the young people in jobs.

80. Need for Youth Employment Service in India. We recommend that the State governments consider the question of setting up effective youth employment services under their education departments, with a close administrative liaison with the departments of labour and industry and with business and commerce.

Apart from the service rendered by way of placing young people in employment, the analysis of the employment situation that such an agency will undertake will prove very helpful in educational planning.

PART III

ADMINISTRATION, CONTROL & FINANCE

A. The Administration & Control of Education

In this section of our report we shall consider the problems of administration and control both in the broad view and with respect to essential details. At many places in this report reference has already been made to this subject. Our purpose here is twofold: first, to set forth a basic design of administrative structure conceived by us to be desirable and, second, to deal with certain specific matters pertinent to administration not heretofore treated. Some of these considerations have resulted in definite recommendations; others are indicative in the sense that, while they do not bar early implementation, they represent our thinking as to the course which we deem essential for the continuous development of education in a democracy.

THE GOVERNMENTAL STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION

The governmental structure of education we think of as the framework, within which educational opportunity, substance, and growth operate and flourish. In another sense we think of it as a co-ordinated system of central, state and local levels of educational endeavour. Structure, for a public function or service, may well be controlling because it is legal. Yet we do not emphasize this, nor indeed, do we think of structure as an end in itself. Rather, the structural framework is the facilitating means—facilitating the educational growth of children, youth and adults, and through this of society towards the unfolding of the democratic potential. Ingredients of facilitating structure in a democracy are the degree to which schools belong to the people, the power of people as citizens to plan directly the educational programmes to be provided in schools and the power to command fiscal resources essential to give effect to the programmes thus planned.

Administration at the Local Level. As we have seen the educational structure in India we cannot escape the conviction that its weakest point is at the local level. Correspondingly, we see the greatest need to be that of strengthening local initiative. While we recognize that initiative comes largely from wanting it and exercising it, we believe that local initiative or local autonomy has to be built into the governmental framework of Indian education much more than is now the case.

This conviction was greatly strengthened as we visited Denmark, the United Kingdom, and the United States. In these countries education, particularly below the college or university level, is largely a local function. To be sure, there was state or national responsibility for education, varying in degree and kind from country to country, but in each case there was vastly more reliance upon the local school system and the local educational authority than in India. In each case local

initiative and fiscal and other resources were harnessed for the cause of education by making schools a major community concern. This reliance on local autonomy has resulted, quite clearly we believe, in establishing a strong tie between communities, schools and social services generally. We are convinced that this local planning and freedom have resulted in the continuous growth of educational opportunity far more than would have been possible under a system where local autonomy is absent or, at best, incidental.

We miss this emphasis in the Commission's report. At the same time we recognize the wisdom of the Commission's emphasis upon the functions of the states and the Centre and the suggestions for improvement at these levels. Each level—central, state and community—has its role to play. For future efficiency, co-ordination of effort is very important. We submit, however, that at present concern for this co-ordination in India is largely as between the central government and the states. To achieve ultimate potential strength, the educational structure must provide for a much greater role for the community school system—that is, local autonomy.

The Community and the School. In this connection, we note with great interest the criticism made by the Commission that "the education given in our schools is isolated from life". The Commission believes that "unless the school is itself organized as a community and is in vital rapport with outside community life, the situation cannot be remedied." To give education a social content and to furnish a vital connection with social services suitable to a democratic society, it is not enough to organize the school as a community in itself. The community must be given opportunities to participate actively in the planning, organization and provision of education. The school must go out to the community and the community must come into the school. Active, sustained interest and conscious support of the community are essential to make schools broadbased and integrated with life outside.

It must be clear from the foregoing how surely we see the importance of developing the structure of the total educational system and the place of the local school system. We shall refer again to this subject in the section on *The Financing of Education*. We need only mention here that we see greater local autonomy as one of the most certain avenues to the gradual upbuilding of school support.

Failure of Local Authorities in India. We are aware of the general scepticism about the educational activities of the existing local bodies like the district boards, local boards, and municipal boards. That schools under the control of local bodies are not on the whole efficient is almost universally recognized. The Commission, commenting on these institutions, (p. 186) remarks: "Though we do not wish to make any unfair generalization about their efficiency, we have had enough evidence to show that there is considerable need for a toning up of these institutions." We feel, however, that if the existing local bodies have failed to discharge their educational responsibilities the fault lies not with the principle of local autonomy but with the machinery designed to express that principle.

We, therefore, believe that the ideal of local autonomy is worthy of pursuit and that, given a suitable machinery, quite a lot can be done by way of realizing the ideal in practice.

Reasons for Faith in Local Responsibility. We have several reasons for our faith in local responsibility for education. As we have already stated, the development of education at the pre-university stage in Denmark, the United Kingdom and the United States is largely due to local autonomy which is not merely accepted as a measure of expediency but is looked upon as a part of the democratic faith. A more important reason is, however, the evidence we have had of the successful application of the principle of local responsibility, may be in an informal way, for the development of education in India. In fact, local responsibility for education is not alien to Indian tradition. Before the introduction of the modern system of public education under the British, education was a community responsibility, each village maintaining its schools often attached to a temple or a mosque. Even to-day instances are not rare of communities, particularly in rural areas, starting schools and running them with or without aid from the state. The large majority of secondary schools in India are non-governmental. While some of these belong to societies or associations with well defined membership, others (a large number in some States) belong to the community in the sense that a large portion of the expenditure for establishing and maintaining them is met from funds locally raised through tuition fees, donations and other voluntary contributions. The managing committees of these schools work, if not in theory at least in practice, as bodies representing the local communities. In spite of the difficulties and handicaps in not having a machinery legally constituted to represent the community, the managing committees of such schools have, on the whole, been able to secure a large measure of local support, both financial and otherwise. This in itself indicates bright possibilities for an administrative structure at the local level. We are told that among some of the tribal communities of Assam such as those in the Naga Hills, a large number of schools are maintained by the community through the agency of the Range Councils. Here, in fact, exists the nucleus of a local educational authority.

81. Need for Experimentation in Local Administration of Education. We recognize that illiteracy, lack of adequate experience in representative government, and limited taxable resources at the local level make decentralisation in any large measure a difficult problem. But we also feel that, both for the purpose of making the ideal of compulsory and free education envisaged in the National Plan a reality in the immediate future and for making effective the contemplated reforms in secondary education, it is essential to utilize local resources and initiative. We find no better way of doing this than by creating opportunities for the community to play an effective role in planning and making provision for the education of its children. With the records of the existing local bodies before us we realize that any hasty step towards a major change in the present administrative set-up will do incalculable harm to the cause of education. What should be the size of the local educational authority? What should be the machinery to run the administration?

How much power should be delegated to these authorities, and in what stages? Answers to these and similar questions have to be found by means of carefully planned experiments.

We, therefore, recommend that the State governments, in collaboration with the Government of India, undertake a few experiments in selected areas, as pilot projects, to determine a suitable form of local administration for education.

Analysis of Weaknesses in Existing Local Administration. The first step in carrying out any such experiment would be to try to find out the possible causes of failure of the existing local administration. This calls for a close and thorough knowledge of the problems faced by the local bodies which we cannot claim to possess. Nevertheless, the following observations of a rather general nature may be relevant and useful.

(i) The size of the administrative unit is an important point for consideration. The ideal size for a local educational authority is difficult to determine. Practice varies not only from country to country but even within a country. The number of local educational authorities is 56,000 in the United States, 146 in England and Wales and 1,385 (including the rural parishes) in Denmark. The average size, it would appear, is largest in England and Wales. But the average size of a district board in India is even larger. We feel that the area and population of a local educational authority should not be so large as to make effective contact between the individual citizen and the local school system difficult. If the community is to feel directly interested in and responsible for the provision of education for its children such contacts must not be remote and vague. This is particularly relevant to a country where representative government has not yet struck deep roots.

(ii) A second point for consideration is whether there should be a single authority for all purposes of local government or whether it would be better to have a separate authority for education only. India, like England and Wales, does not have separate authorities for education only as is generally true in the United States. Although there are strong arguments for and against both the systems, it has to be carefully examined whether an all-purpose local administration is the thing that is most needed for progress and development of education in India. A local authority, having other important matters such as health and sanitation and transport and communications to look after besides education, may tend to place education lower in the scale of priorities in a community where the value of public education is only imperfectly realized.

(iii) The question of divided responsibility for education between the state and the local authorities also needs careful examination. When the responsibility even for the same stage of education is shared, the local authority may tend to lose in importance and look upon its educational responsibilities as less important than those of the State. The state with its greater resources is likely to take more and more of the responsibility.

There are distinct advantages in utilizing for the purpose of experimentation the existing administrative machinery with some necessary modification. The most important is that the people are familiar with it. But there are also dangers. The past tradition may die hard, and in spite of changes in the structure the spirit may remain unchanged.

82. Two Types of Possible Experiments. *We recommend that experiments be conducted both by utilizing some existing local bodies with suitable modifications in their structure and by creating new local authorities for education only.*

One way of modifying the structure and the administrative machinery of a district board would be for the district board to delegate powers to an educational committee to be appointed by it, and then for the committee to delegate some of its functions to smaller units, each consisting of a group of villages, created exclusively for purposes of educational administration. Two brief outlines on the constitution and functions of the local educational authorities in England and Wales and in the United States will be found in the Appendices (See Appendix VIII).

A newly created authority may take the form of a small school district independent of other agencies of local administration. The size and population of the school district may be determined by an existing unit of revenue administration such as a *taluka* or a *mouja* or a *panchayat* or a combination of two or more *panchayats*, or an area with a central high school or higher secondary school and a few middle and primary schools surrounding it.

A word must be said about the control of the state over the local authority. While the aim of the experiments would be to allow as much freedom as possible to the local authorities it should be noted that there should be ample scope for judicious control by the state. In fact, it is not the amount of control so much as the right use of it that really matters. What is, however, more important than control is proper guidance and help by the state. In fact, the local authority must be carefully nursed by the state. To use an analogy, the state must put itself in the place of a wise adult helping a child to grow, controlling where necessary, but helping and guiding most of the time. Improper use of control and too generous a measure of freedom, both can be equally harmful. Much will depend on the understanding, sympathy and faith of those who plan and help in executing the experiments.

Administration at National and State Levels. We have discussed administration at the local level at some length because this subject has not so far received as much attention as administration at the national and state levels.

The Commission has recommended (pp. 177-183) several measures for the improvement of educational administration at the national and state levels. These are : the constitution of a committee both at the Centre and in each state of Ministers concerned with education ; a co-ordinating

committee of heads of departments connected with different spheres of education, boards of secondary education in each state with a sub-committee for examinations; and state advisory boards of education. We are in agreement with all these recommendations. On the constitution and work of the teacher training board we have different ideas. These have been discussed fully in the section on *The Training of Teachers*.

The Commission recognizes the difficulty of having as secretary of the education department a person from the civil service who is often not fully conversant with educational problems and liable to be transferred frequently from one department to another. It has also recommended that the director of education should have at least the status of a joint secretary. We would go a step further and say that where the director of education is not the secretary but only a joint secretary, the secretary should be a person with professional experience in education.

We make the following further recommendations :—

83. Grants from the Centre to the States. *We recommend that all grants-in-aid by the Government of India to the State governments should be governed by well defined rules which result from joint discussions and agreement on the part of the representatives of the Government of India and the State governments (Cf. Congressional grants for vocational education in the United States).*

84. Formulation of Grant-in-aid Rules. *We recommend that rules governing grants-in-aid should be promulgated by State governments only after receipt of proposals from a committee on which the beneficiaries are represented.*

85. Technical Staff for State Education Departments. *We recommend that each state should have adequate professional personnel attached to its directorate of education for such purposes as the collection, interpretation and publication of statistical data, the collection and dissemination of information about curriculum trends, the development of teaching aids and other technical aspects of education.*

Organization of Research. The Commission (p. 77) has stressed the need for the establishment in each state and at the Centre of bureaus or boards for curricular research. It has also felt the need (p. 115) for some organization like an 'educational wing' attached to the directorate of education or to a post-graduate training college "which will devote itself exclusively to the study of educational issues and problems, with special reference to the teachers' practical difficulties, and produce pamphlets, brochures, accounts of new educational experiments and movements for their use". We here also recommend research on objective tests and other evaluation techniques and research ancillary to the production of text-books. In our recommendation No. 79, we have proposed the establishment of an all-India Educational Research Centre. We feel that such a centre could undertake on a national level all the

research functions enumerated above. In the states there could be state bureaus of education for the purpose of conducting all the research that is necessary and feasible at the state level.

86. **Advice to States on Reorganization of Secondary Education.** The Central Advisory Board of Education has recommended that there should be a unit in the Central Ministry to watch over the programme of the implementation of the recommendations contained in the Commission's Report and to advise the Ministry thereon. It has also recommended that this section should be headed by an officer who should occasionally visit the states to advise them on the problems and difficulties encountered by them. While we agree with the recommendation generally, we feel that the advisory services contemplated cannot be rendered by one person.

We, therefore, recommend that a small team of experts in different aspects of secondary education be appointed to advise the states on their programmes of secondary education.

THE DEMOCRATIC SPIRIT IN ADMINISTRATION

Changes and improvements in the machinery of administration, important as they are will lose much of their value unless the spirit of administration also undergoes a change. If the administrator does not look upon his work more as a matter of human relationships than as a mechanical application of rules and regulations, teachers will find it extremely difficult to do their job in transforming their schools.

Inspection. Among the officers of the state department of education the inspector has an important role to play in bringing about a change in the spirit of administration. We agree with the Commission's analysis of the defects in the present system of inspection of schools. Among other reasons why inspection to-day is not satisfactory we found the following :—

- (i) The role of the inspector is wrongly conceived in that he is regarded primarily as a person whose function is to judge rather than to advise and guide.
- (ii) Most inspectors have no specific training for their job, and some do not even have any professional training or experience.
- (iii) Almost all inspectors to-day have to devote a considerable portion of their time to administrative duties.

The Commission has suggested that the term 'educational adviser' is preferable to that of 'inspector'. We agree that the term inspector is not very apt, as inspection should not be looked upon as the primary function of the inspector. Moreover, the conception of an inspectorate indirectly implies some derogation in the status of teachers and may stand in the way of friendly relations between teachers and inspectors,

In the countries visited by us inspectors are looked upon, and they look upon themselves, above all as consultants and collaborators whose duty it is to discuss with headmasters and teachers their difficulties and problems and to help them in finding satisfactory solutions. In Denmark an inspector is even required to teach in a school two days a week. We agree with the Commission when it says (p. 204) that "the true role of an inspector should be to study the problems of each school and view them comprehensively in the context of educational objectives, to formulate suggestions for improvement and to help the teachers to carry out his advice and recommendations." Much study and experimentation will be needed to frame syllabuses suited to varying abilities, to evolve suitable methods of handling the syllabuses and to develop proper methods of evaluation and examination in the new secondary school. While the main burden of this work will rest upon teachers, inspectors also will have to play an increasingly important part. While a few good schools which are freed from the cramping effects of rules and regulations will be able to start experiments and investigations on their own, the vast majority of schools with inexperienced headmasters and teachers and with poor equipment will badly need counselling and guidance from experienced officers. In these schools lies the inspector's greatest opportunity for good. It should be his duty to awaken healthy doubts as to the insufficiency of familiar routines, to provoke the unreflective to thought, to stimulate experiments by discussion and suggestion and to spread progressive ideas by serving as a link between schools.

87. Training Courses for Inspectors. To be able to discharge these responsibilities properly inspectors must be persons of high academic attainment and considerable professional training and experience. We are in agreement with the recommendation of the Commission on the recruitment of inspectors (p. 184). But we should like to emphasize that a person, however gifted academically he may be, should not be appointed as an inspector if he does not possess the required professional training and experience.

We therefore recommend the organization of training courses for inspectors.

88. The Inspector's Administrative Work. We have said that inspectors to-day have to devote a considerable part of their time to administrative work, which restricts the attention they can pay to advising and guiding teachers and heads in effecting improvements in the schools.

We, therefore, recommend that the routine administrative work of the inspector should be delegated to an administrative assistant of gazetted rank. The inspector should also be freed from all work connected with accounts and audit which should be delegated to qualified accountants and auditors responsible to him.

Administration Within the Schools. We have stressed the need of a more liberal conception of the role of the inspector to guarantee greater freedom to the schools. We feel that it is even more important that the same spirit of freedom should permeate the internal administration of the school.

89. **Teacher Participation in Planning.** In some schools in India we found the head and the teachers looking upon their work as a co-operative endeavour and working as a harmonious team engaged in a common purpose. From our observations and interviews, however, it is clear to us that this is far from being the general practice all over the country. In one place, representatives of the local teachers' organization complained that in some schools even text-books were selected by the heads without consulting the teachers. In another context we have stressed the need for teachers to have an adequate measure of freedom and autonomy and not to be rigidly bound by syllabuses, rules and regulations. We feel that if the school is to be something more than a mere collection of classrooms where different teachers put across to pupils bits of unrelated information, the work of the school should be looked upon as the common and vital concern of all the members of the staff and planned by the head and the teachers in close partnership. The head should be looked upon as an experienced and valued colleague whose advice is to be sought rather than as a superior authority from whom orders are to be received. We found different kinds of organizational devices in different schools. Those found in one of the good American schools are described in the appendices. (See Appendix IV).

We recommend that each school set up a suitable organization for effective teacher participation in planning and executing the school programme.

We wish to add, however, that the mere setting up of a machinery will be of little value if the head of the school does not ardently believe in democratic planning.

90. **Selection of the Heads of Schools.** The selection of the head is of the utmost importance. It is of particular importance in the case of the proposed multipurpose schools. The great range of intelligence and abilities of pupils who will come to these schools and the variety of the courses that will be offered will make a great demand on the head for breadth of knowledge, interest and understanding. Most teachers now in school belong to the old tradition, academically trained and partial to the familiar ways. It will call for more than ordinary imagination and understanding on the part of heads to help them to unsettle their habits in order to be able to adjust themselves to the new situation. In view of the key position of the head utmost care should be taken to select the right type of person. The procedure for selecting heads varies from state to state and even from management to management within a state. The usual practice is by promotion mainly on the basis of seniority. We do not consider this to be a sound practice.

We recommend that the selection of the heads of schools, in the case of government schools, should be made by the Public Service Commission as at present. In the case of non-government schools selection committees should be set up by the managements, and they should employ evaluation and selection procedures approved by the state departments of education.

We should like to emphasize in this connection that for heads of technical, commercial, agricultural and multipurpose schools professional training in teaching and in school administration should be a required qualification. In spite of high academic attainments and experience in the relevant field of technology, commerce or industry, a person without professional training in education may not be genuinely interested in the problems of pupils at the secondary school stage nor appreciate the special function of the secondary school.

OTHER ASPECTS OF ADMINISTRATION

Size of Classes. In the course of our tour in India we frequently encountered overcrowded classes. We have stressed elsewhere that one of the conditions for the successful employment of dynamic methods is a reasonable size of classes. The Commission has recommended 30 as the optimum and 40 as the maximum number of pupils for a class. While supporting this recommendation we should like to urge the state departments of education to insist on it as an essential condition for the recognition of a school.

91. **Staffing.** The size of classes is closely linked up with the question of staffing. On the whole, schools in India are inadequately staffed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The overall pupil-teacher ratio, even in some of the otherwise good schools we visited, was 30:1 or even higher. In any of the foreign countries we visited this would be considered exceedingly high. In some schools abroad we found the ratio as low as 18:1.

Subject to adjustment to meet variations in the volume of practical work and of special classes we recommend that the pupil-teacher ratio be not higher than 25:1.

In some countries we saw the practice of part-time teachers being employed in addition to the regular full-time members of the staff. Some technical high schools in England utilized the services of specialists from a senior institution to deal with particular parts of the curriculum by teaching for one or two periods a week. For the small junior high schools situated in the sparsely populated areas, Scotland has a system of travelling teachers for practical subjects. We feel both these practices lend themselves to being adopted in India.

92. **The Role of Heads in the Selection of Teachers.** We should like to add a word concerning the role of the head in the selection of teachers for his school. Everywhere abroad we were impressed by the way the head is associated in the choice of his teachers. The Commission has in the case of privately managed institutions recommended (p. 156) selection by specially constituted selection committees and we have urged that the states should each evolve a suitable procedure for selection and evaluation.

We recommend that in any selection procedure the opinion of the head be given proper weight. This may be done either by having the head on the selection committee or by requiring the selection committee ordinarily to confine its choice to candidates recommended by the head.

Conditions for Recognition of Schools. We endorse the recommendations of the Commission (Recommendations 14 to 27, pp. 205 & 206) regarding the conditions for the recognition of schools. We should like to add the following :—

- (i) All private schools must be non-profit making institutions.
- (ii) All schools must be registered, and all registered schools, recognized or unrecognized, should be subject to inspection by the appropriate authorities to ensure that maximum standards of health and safety and other requirements of law are observed.

While we are in agreement with the Commission in rejecting the idea that all private schools should be taken over by the state (p. 188), we would like to see the state make increasing provision for secondary education. As free and compulsory education has been extended at the elementary stage, the states have had to assume increasing responsibility for such education. Similarly, as the country moves towards free and compulsory secondary education, the proportional share of the cost of secondary education to be borne by the state must be increased. We believe that, while private initiative in providing secondary education facilities should be encouraged and supported by grants-in-aid, the states should at the same time increase their direct support of secondary education and should assume increased responsibility therefor.

School Buildings and Equipment. Everywhere on our tour abroad we were impressed by the attention given to buildings, equipment, playgrounds and open spaces. Even in big industrial cities schools were commonly provided with large playgrounds and open spaces. We endorse the recommendations of the Commission (Recommendations 26 to 37, pp. 206-207) in respect of school buildings and equipment.

B. THE FINANCING OF EDUCATION

In preparing this section of our report, we have kept in mind what has been said in the immediately preceding section concerning administration and control—particularly what has been said about the development of greater local responsibility for education, that is local autonomy. We

do not assume that such local autonomy can or will develop overnight or on a widespread front immediately. We dare to hope, however, that the trends in development will be in that direction and further, we assume that such trends will be actively encouraged and supported by the Centre and the states. Although much of what we have to say in this section applies to the relationships we believe to be desirable between the Centre, the states and the local school districts or school managements, we believe that it is equally applicable to the relationships between the Centre and the states. Our views, as set forth herein, should not be interpreted as being predicated solely on the existence of local autonomy, as we envisage it. We have intended that it be read as applying to the relationships between the Centre and the states also.

We believe that the financing of education is inseparable from education itself. Constantly we have been told that this or that is educationally desirable, but that lack of finance stands in the way. Needs are so many and press so continuously upon an inadequate revenue base that a real pessimism concerning finance seems to be prevalent. This pessimism must somehow be dispelled.

If adequate financing of education is to develop, we think several things are essential:—

- (i) All effective levels of government must be integrated in educational financing. The financing plan must involve support from and balance among local, state and central governments.
- (ii) Citizens, with the help and leadership of educationalists, must determine together the needs of education and plan together to meet these needs.
- (iii) Fiscal power must be connected with popular determination of needs. Behind each unit of the educational structure there must be the power to command resources; specifically tax resources, at the central, state, and local levels.
- (iv) We believe there are more potential resources than are often thought to be existent, provided citizens, together with educational leaders, are brought into partnership in the planning and decision making process. What people really want they will somehow get, provided they have facilitating machinery for the task. School finance is a combination of (a) educational need, (b) cost required by each unit of determined need, and (c) support of each.
- (v) At some level a flexible budget is essential to the growth of school support. In democracies the most effective level for this flexibility is the local or community level.

It seems to us that the level which is weakest in planning, in financing and in control of schools and, therefore, most needing strength in India is the local level.

Somewhere among the three levels of educational responsibility—local, state and central—there must be financial flexibility, that is, the power to vary support according to needs. We think the logical place for this is at the local level, where schools are, where children go to school, and where people live. Today, in India, the chief element of flexibility lies in fees. This cannot mean a free education which we regard as fundamental to democracy. We believe local taxes might well furnish the flexible element.

In the budgetary process involving planning for both receipts and expenditures, and involving grants-in-aid from the states, the process should follow this pattern: (i) Educational needs and their costs are planned for a given fiscal year. (ii) Decision on these is made concerning the portion of these costs which the state and the Centre will bear. This might be thought of as a foundation or minimum programme of finance. (iii) Supposing the local community or school district has gone through the planning, it may then decide that the people want more educational facility than is provided by the state and the Centre. In such a case the local school district, balancing its possibility or willingness to tax against its desire for further educational facility, will decide what it can pay for, over and above the state and central grants. Certainty of amounts of state and central aids is essential to local budgeting. (iv) Finally, it raises the further amount necessary to meet the desired facilities through appropriate fund-raising powers.

To carry the illustration a step further, we may suppose that next year something different or extended in the school programme is desired. Accordingly, the amount considered desirable is either raised, modified, or decided against. This is what is meant by a flexible budget at the local level.

It may be held that this flexibility should be achieved at the state or central level. The trouble with this concept is that the state and the Centre are not close enough to where the people live, where children go to school, and where the planning process is real and growth producing. *The flexing point should be at the level closest to the school.*

We hasten to add that state and central aids, in the form of financial grants, ought to be substantial and in such amounts as will not render flexibility impotent at the local level. It assumes also that central aids ought to be large enough to allow flexibility to operate at the local level within a reasonable margin of financial leeway. By placing the power of flexibility at the local level, we do not mean to imply that central aids should not change from year to year, and become stronger as the foundation or undergirding financial power.

We believe that with the present limitation of finance for schools, the development of free power locally to plan educational programmes and to decide whether or not to invest the margin of extra support required, give the best promise of that growth of resources for school support which is necessary for flexibility. The strength of this opinion

lies in the experiences of other countries. It may also be observed that as total economic strength and prosperity grow they will be reflected locally in stronger ability at that level.

In this connection we would indicate what seems to us to be a promising hypothesis for tax policy. We hypothesize that the movement we have advocated—namely, strengthening the process of local determination—will in the long run broaden the tax base. We submit that the promising substantive field for this is education and social services.

93. **Grants by the State and the Centre.** It certainly follows from these considerations that we endorse and urge a greatly strengthened support of schools through financial grants by both the states and the Centre. These are necessary for essential local autonomy to flourish. With respect to the further development of central financing we recommend the following :—

(a) *Central aid should be given to the states, and the states' aid should be given to the local school systems. Supplementing these, the local financial function should be to achieve flexibility and responsibility.*

(b) *State and Central grants in support of determined minimum standards should be so designed that their amounts will be in inverse proportion to the fiscal abilities of the grantee—that is, following the 'equalization' principle.*

Some local school districts, as they are developed, will be relatively strong financially, and some will be weak. The states and the Centre have guardian powers to see that the youth in all districts are equitably treated. To this end central financing is necessary. Here, a basic fact appears, particularly as more is made of the local school districts : the fiscal abilities of school districts to support schools and the needs of these districts do not necessarily keep pace with each other. Some districts—rural or urban—will have more resources and fewer children per financial unit, i.e. smaller educational load ; the reverse is also true. One of the important functions of the state, and of state and central grants, is to equalize this situation. Hence the state and the Centre should distribute their support in inverse proportion to local fiscal ability per unit of educational need—up to a determined minimum standard of educational support. This is financial equalization and a prime principle of state aid. We shall deal further with this matter later (See discussion on page 115 of the matching principle).

(c) *General or 'block' grants should be favoured rather than the continued extension of multiple specialized grants.*

Specialized grants restrict or limit the power of local districts, or school systems, to plan their own programmes. In countries which have had most experience with central aids it is generally held that broad unspecialized grants wisely leave the responsibility for planning and budgeting to the local school system. This is supported by the variation in local conditions. Hence, block grants place a premium on local responsibility and the exercise of educational leadership.

(d) *Some financing leeway should be provided at the state and central levels for the direct support of new educational developments, such as demonstration and pioneer schools and experimentation.*

Teachers' Salaries. Everywhere we went in India, the salaries of teachers was a problem of paramount importance. The economic condition of teachers in India is much worse than elsewhere ; indeed it is critical. We believe that something substantial must be done—and not just a little. Dribbles sometimes aggravate the problem. How seriously do the people see the need to break through and get teachers' and administrators' salaries to a decent level ?

We have no sense of assurance that the conviction of this need is strong enough to break through, but we are convinced that the breakthrough is crucial in the total social economy of India.

94. **Reconstruction of System of School Finance.** The Centre, in co-operation with the states, should take the lead in the considerable reconstruction which the system of school finance requires. We do not mean that reconstruction can be accomplished all at once.

A well co-ordinated and integrated system of educational finance, involving the Centre, the states and local districts, is a complicated job requiring careful planning over some time at the outset and with continuous follow-up thereafter. In this, the Centre should take the lead, but as a co-operative venture with the states.

We recommend that a thorough educational finance study be undertaken at once, headed by a commission of high rank and broad representation.

The Reports of the Secondary Education Commission and the Central Advisory Board. We have noted the views of the Commission and the Central Advisory Board of Education regarding finance. We offer the following comments :—

It is possible, as the Commission recommends, that an industrial education cess is desirable as a source of support of technical and vocational education at the secondary school stage. We are prepared to support this recommendation as an immediate and temporary measure, but we seriously doubt that it is desirable as a long term policy. Our doubts here are of two kinds : first, 'earmarked' taxes tend to reduce the flexibility of support, narrow the base of support and make orderly development of the programme difficult ; and second, they cut across the orderly development of a programme of state and central aid.

We support the Commission's recommendation as a temporary measure but, at the same time, express our belief that support for technical and vocational education should be more broadly based and should be actively developed as conditions permit. In this connection, we call attention to the possibilities of voluntary support for technical and vocational education from industry as has been done on a relatively wide front in some other countries.

We have carefully read and studied the various recommendations contained in the Central Advisory Board's Report. With respect to the recommendations contained in Part B, Paragraph (d), (i) and (ii) on page 3 of the mimeographed Report, we have the following observations to make.

First, we do not agree that the responsibility for recurring expenditures should be the province of the Centre alone, as contrasted with non-recurring expenditures. We believe that variation in conditions might well make this practice so rigid that the desired educational developments would be unnecessarily delayed or restricted.

Second, we entertain serious doubts about the equitability of the so-called 'matching' formula for state and central grants. By such a formula, aid is given to the wealthier states (which are most able to provide educational facilities from their own resources) equal to that given to those states which may be unable to provide as much as half of the needed funds. Under such circumstances, those states least able to provide funds will inevitably be handicapped in relation to the wealthier states in taking advantage of the purposes for which such aid is projected—namely, the provision of diversified courses in the secondary schools. We suggest, as a better procedure, that the principle of equalization be applied in determination of state and central aid *up to a determined minimum desirable standard* and that, thereafter, the principle of matching aid may be applied. Such a procedure would insure equal treatment of all states, in terms of capacity to pay, within the determined minimum level of facilities and, at the same time, it would encourage and support those states which are able and willing to go beyond the minimum to do so. The principle upon which aid is given should be regarded as much more than a formula by which the Centre works out the distribution of funds for accounting purposes; it must be regarded as an instrument of educational policy designed to encourage and promote actively the growth of aid to education.

Finally, we would record our view that to attempt to deal with the financing of secondary education, apart from the whole field of education, including primary education, is very difficult if not unwise. The fundamental problem, we believe is not the financing of *secondary education* as such, but the financing of *education*.

PART IV

THE DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC UNDERSTANDING
OF EDUCATION

This section is concerned with the creation of an informed public opinion which understands and values the aims and objectives of education for all, and consequently is eager to do everything it can to further the development of a sound and vigorous educational system.

Such a public opinion does not come into existence spontaneously; it has to be educated into being. Its basis may well be a spontaneous enthusiasm, a desire springing out of the hearts of the people for educational opportunity. That this exists in many parts of India we have had convincing evidence.

But this by itself is not enough; indeed, ignorant enthusiasm may unwittingly put obstacles in the way of achieving the desired aim. There must also be awareness of right ends and an understanding of the best means by which these may be attained.

We appreciate that in the long run the surest agency for disseminating such awareness is the good school intimately linked with the local society which it serves. But, especially if the rapid spread of awareness and understanding is desirable, as we feel it to be in India today, other larger-scale and swifter means must also be used. The fertilization of opinion by the schools must of necessity be slow, unequally distributed and of widely varying effectiveness.

We believe that, in the present circumstances in India, government must take the initiative in this great task, because no other agency disposes of sufficient resources—human and material—to ensure that effort shall be ubiquitous and simultaneous. By 'government' we mean all three levels: central, state and local. Each, we believe, can and should play a distinctive part in arousing and educating public interest in education. Needless to say, we believe that the three levels of government should work together in close partnership.

95. Function of the Central Ministry of Education. The Central Ministry of Education, we think, could best undertake three functions:—

(i) collection and collation of information about educational developments throughout the country and abroad:

(a) material which State governments and local authorities could adapt for use in their own way to suit their particular purposes and circumstances;

(b) popular pamphlets, leaflets, posters, etc., intended for widespread distribution. For example, a series of simple illustrated brochures, in Hindi and various regional languages, describing progressive educational methods, would make a valuable contribution.

(ii) Production (and collection) of films, filmstrips, and slides illustrating good educational enterprises and experiments in India and other countries; the maintenance of a lending library of such material available on easy terms to reputable borrowers; and the publication of catalogues of its contents. Examples of how this can be carried out in practice can be found in the United States, Canada, Great Britain and Australia.

(iii) Organization of national conferences bringing together, from all parts of India, educators, other professional people, industrialists (proprietary, managerial, and trade union), businessmen, merchants, representatives of voluntary organizations, and so on, for exchange and pooling of ideas on matters of common educational interest.

We are aware that the Central Bureau of Education collects and collates educational information, both domestic and foreign, and that it issues pamphlets. But its charge, as described in *Progress of Education in India, 1947-1952*, (pp. 16-17), seems to us much too limited. We feel that more definite fixing of responsibility for dissemination of such information than is implied in this paragraph would be desirable. Such of the Bureau's pamphlets as we have seen appear to be aimed at professional rather than public opinion. Something much more like the *Educational Pamphlets* issued by the English Ministry of Education and published by H. M. Stationery Office is what we have in mind.

We recommend that the Central Bureau of Education be suitably expanded, or alternatively that a new Branch be created within the Central Ministry of Education, to perform the functions outlined by us with regard to the furtherance of popular understanding of education and such other similar functions as the Minister may deem desirable.

96. The Role of the State Governments. State governments, being directly responsible for all public education within their boundaries, should deal at first hand with this problem of educating public opinion. In the present circumstances, there can be little doubt that their most powerful instrument is their programme of social education, which is in itself a demonstration of the purposes and values of education.

We recommend that the states consider making increased use of their programmes of social education as an instrument for furthering popular understanding of education.

In this connection they could make extensive use of films, filmstrips and slides, pictorial exhibitions of good schools at work, posters, broadcast talks and discussions on educational topics, illustrated pamphlets and leaflets, public meetings, press conferences, and articles and photographs supplied to the press. We appreciate the lively interest the press manifests in education by the frequent news items and leading articles it publishes on educational topics. We urge that it be aided and encouraged in this good work by a regular supply of material.

We are not suggesting, of course, that all efforts by the states should be linked with the programme of social education. There are in every state districts where this would be inappropriate and sections of the population which must be reached by more sophisticated approaches than most of those indicated above. A first task for each state government would be to survey the situation in its area and estimate for each district the most effective forms of approach. A second, which we would emphasize, is to seek the co-operation of all agencies, official and non-official, able to give help in any way. We later suggest ways in which voluntary bodies can give assistance.

97. **Holding of 'Education Weeks'.** District boards and municipalities can use many of the means advocated above for state governments, with others of a more intimate and personal character. The holding of 'education weeks', during which all the schools in the area are 'at home', have proved very effective in England, Denmark and the United States. In the United States great advantage has resulted from organizing these weeks simultaneously on a national basis, and calling them 'American Education Weeks'. During these weeks exhibitions of pupils' work in every department are displayed, pupils and teachers demonstrate school activities, teachers and administrators give talks and answer questions about school life and the local school system, and educators of national repute speak on the broader aspects of school education. In some states in India local education authorities arrange 'education weeks' for primary schools; in others, teachers' associations organize such weeks for primary and secondary schools.

We recommend that all school authorities consider promoting 'education weeks', and we would urge the fullest co-operation in such activities between primary and secondary schools, through their teachers' organizations or by other means.

Education weeks cannot, however, be organized frequently, possibly not more than once a year throughout the area of a local board. But the work of educating public opinion must go on continuously. Public meetings at which teachers and administrators give talks and answer questions have their place, though one has to admit that these, like 'education weeks', tend to be attended by already interested parents while the indifferent stay away.

98. **Approaches to Parents.** A method used with much success by some English and American authorities is to post to the parents of children due to commence school, or to enter upon a new stage in education, a pamphlet explaining what the child will do, and why, and suggesting ways in which the parents can co-operate to make the child's school life happy and successful. If a change in the school system is projected a similar pamphlet goes out to the parents of the children concerned.

We recommend for the consideration of school authorities this very personal and relatively inexpensive approach to parents through pamphlets and other such materials.

The Role of the School. The success of all attempts to arouse an informed enthusiasm for public education depends ultimately upon the schools. Not even the most astute salesmanship will continue to sell a bad article. A good school is potentially, and often actually, the most effective local agent for popularising education and bringing people to understand its aims and practices. Some schools achieve national, or even international reputations.

In general, the more a school identifies itself with the interests of the district it serves and establishes links with the adult population the better. It should be in and of the local society, radiating throughout it a beneficent influence and receiving from it encouragement and support. It is perhaps hardly necessary to point out that where this happy state of affairs exists the stage is already set for the exercise of local autonomy in the administration of schools, in which elsewhere in this report we have declared our belief. The local society will be proud to accept responsibility for its schools, and the schools proud to be in the charge of the local society.

But such a state of affairs does not come about by chance. It does not necessarily come about because a school is a good school. Some of the best schools have had to endure years of obloquy because their aims and methods were not understood. A school must explain itself, and the necessity was never greater than in these days when educational aims, organizational structures, curricular content, teaching methods and assessment procedures are in a state of revolutionary change. It has to be remembered that changes which appear reasonable, or even inevitable, to the teacher or the educational administrator may be utterly incomprehensible to the outsider.

In developing links between itself and its community the school's first obligation is to establish close and cordial relations with the parents of the children attending it. The means to this are numerous. The school should be open at all times to the seriously enquiring parent, and the head should be reasonably available for interview. Reception of a child into the school should be an occasion for welcome and explanation. Some English heads write personal letters to the parents of incoming pupils, and set aside the first two or three days for interviewing them. Class teachers, while they cannot arrange interviews during teaching hours, should be available at other times to discuss, on their own or at the parents' initiative, pupils' problems at school or in the home. They should welcome invitations to visit their pupils' homes, and be prepared, when circumstances appear to demand it and invitations are not forthcoming, tactfully to suggest them.

99. Parent-Teacher Associations. Probably the best way to enlist parental co-operation and support on a large scale is by forming a parent-teacher association. Such an association has a dual function: one, to provide opportunity for parents and teachers to meet frequently to discuss the common task upon which they are engaged—the upbringing of the children in the school; two, to have an intimately interested body of persons seeking constantly to improve the educational facilities provided by the school.

Though the initiative in forming a parent-teacher association can come from either side, in practice it is usually the school, through its head, which takes the lead. It is essential that not only the head but all members of the school staff be convinced that a parent-teacher association is desirable before the attempt to form one is undertaken. Not all heads and teachers are so convinced. In such instances it is probably better that they use the methods in which they have confidence ; but reluctance to organize a P. T. A. should not be merely a cover for doing nothing. In one way or another a close, cordial and active co-operation should be built up between home and school. Neither can do its job effectively without continuous aid and support from the other.

In many countries, but notably in the United States, local bodies with a broader basis of membership are formed to spread awareness of the purposes and practices of education, and to give practical support and material aid to the schools. Examples of such bodies are, in the United States, the "Home and School" and the "School and Community" associations and the National Citizens' Commission for the Public Schools and allied state and local groups, and the "Parents and Citizens" (P & C) Associations in Australia. In Denmark, Parents' Councils have a statutory place and function in local government.

We recommend that all schools examine the present state of their relationships with parents and the public with a view to seeing whether they can be further developed with benefit to their pupils.

The Role of Teachers' Associations. There are many voluntary bodies which can and should play an active part in creating and sustaining an enlightened awareness among the public about education. Among such bodies we consider that the Indian teachers' professional associations have a primary responsibility. The range of activities open to them is wide : they can hold public meetings, organize study courses and conferences, supply speakers and lecturers to other bodies, take the initiative in founding and running education societies, send articles and letters to the press, help in preparing radio broadcasts, educational films (and television programmes), supply facts and figures to members of Parliament, and publish pamphlets, periodicals and books on educational topics. The National Education Association in the United States, and the National Union of Teachers in England are notable examples of professional associations which engage continuously in all these activities on a large scale.

We would draw the attention of all teachers' professional associations in India to the opportunities for action indicated above.

The Role of Colleges and Universities. Every university and college should be a centre of cultural activity radiating throughout its region. All the English universities and university colleges maintain a service of lectures and study courses through their extra-mural departments, and it is a common practice in the United States for universities and colleges to offer similar services. We were greatly impressed by some

pioneering endeavours in social and adult education which we saw in India, and would like to see many more universities attempting similar experiments.

Voluntary societies caring for adolescent youth, especially boys and girls who have left school, can do much, chiefly in informal ways, to inculcate respect and desire for education in the minds of the rising generation.

Industrial and commercial establishments which receive the products of the schools, have a lively concern in the betterment of public education. They can only translate this into useful action if they inform themselves thoroughly about the problems and processes of schooling. We would urge chambers of commerce, employers' associations and trade unions (where they have not done so) to set up national, state and local education committees to advise them upon educational matters, and in particular to study the problem of organic relationship between the educational and industrial structures of the country. We mean by the term 'industrial structure' the entire complex of productive occupations, including agriculture.

We urge education authorities, at all levels, to seek every opportunity to make contact with representatives of industry, commerce, and business, and to develop with them co-operative action. But we wish also to emphasize that in our opinion industry has an obligation to take the initiative and that there are many ways in which it can and should.

In this section no specific reference has been made to secondary education. The omission is deliberate; we regard the process of education as a unity, which must be seen and understood as a whole. At appropriate times, special emphasis will be given to one or other of its stages. For example, as the Commission notes on p. 228 of its report, the promulgation of reforms in the secondary education field will need to be supported by a publicity campaign directed to informing the public about their purpose and significance. This might well be made the occasion for the issue by the states of pamphlets in various languages (see the Central Advisory Board's Report, p. 48, Section C para 1) explaining such matters as new organizational structures for secondary education, diversified courses, and the value and purpose of craft teaching in schools. At the same time, a separate set of pamphlets, couched in more technical terms, might be issued to teachers.

In our opinion, however, no stage or section of the educational process should be treated as a completely isolated entity, but set against the background of the process as a whole.

To sum up : we believe that in a free democracy the public system of education must be shaped out of the ideals, desires and needs of society, and that no good system can emerge until and unless these are both understood and made articulate by the people.

APPENDIX I

Teachers' Salaries in England and Wales

NEGOTIATING MACHINERY

Salary scales for teachers serving in maintained and grant-aided schools and colleges (except those of university rank) in England and Wales are negotiated by the Burnham Committee—so called from the name of its first chairman. This is a statutory body, and is made up of two numerically equal panels representative of the employees (teachers) and the employers (local education authorities) under an independent chairman, who is appointed by the Minister of Education. The panel members are appointed by the professional associations of the teachers and the Local Education Authorities in fixed numbers.

There are actually four committees :—

- (i) *The main committee*, for primary and secondary schools
- (ii) *The technical committee*, for technical colleges
- (iii) *The training college committee*
- (iv) *The committee for agricultural and horticultural institutes.*

The procedure is as follows. A panel meets in private. When it has reached an agreement it notifies the chairman, who summons the two panels to meet together. The panel's case is stated by the leader of the panel, and is replied to by the leader of the opposite panel. No other member from either side speaks. The Chairman's advice may be asked, but he may not, on his own initiative, offer advice. There is no recourse to arbitration ; the two panels must reach an agreement.

When the two panels have reached an agreement, and this has been endorsed by the associations, on either side, who are represented on the committee, the Chairman forwards the agreement to the Minister of Education. The Minister may accept or reject, but may not alter, the agreement. So far he has always accepted. When he has accepted he makes an order, and it becomes obligatory upon the local education authorities to pay the scales agreed.

An agreement runs for three years, and may thereafter be renewed year by year. One year's notice must be given to terminate an agreement.

APPENDIX II

THE SCARSDALE SYSTEM OF SALARY INCREMENTS

The salary schedule in use in the Scarsdale (New York) school system, provides for salary increments on a threefold basis : (i) *annual assured increment* based on continued satisfactory service (within prescribed limits set forth in the schedule), (ii) *in-service increment* (in addition to annual increment) based on acceptable, approved evidence of improvement in the teacher's training or qualifications and (iii) *merit increment* based on extraordinarily valuable contributions to the school as demonstrated by the results of the teacher's work.

Annual assured increment within the limits set forth in the salary schedule, is automatic for all teachers, the one and only controlling consideration being the continuation of the teacher in the employment of the schools.

In-service increment, varies with individual teachers and is based upon a formula which takes account of three kinds of in-service training or 'growth' activities by teachers : (i) successful completion of approved, organized courses of study given by recognized universities, colleges or teachers' training institutions, (ii) self-directed travel or projects which are regarded as contributing to the teacher's qualifications for the performance of his responsibilities in the school, and (iii) other 'service' or employment experiences which, by their nature, are regarded as contributing to the teacher's qualifications for the performance of his responsibilities in the school.

Merit increment becomes operative in two situations : (i) when the teacher has attained to the maximum automatic salary provided for by the schedule, and is under active consideration for 'advancement' to a 'master teacher' status, and (ii) when, by reason of extraordinarily valuable contributions to the school, suitable recognition through salary increment is deemed desirable, even though the teacher has not attained to the maximum automatic salary provided for by the schedule.

Final determination of both *in-service* and *merit* increments lies with the Board of Education, upon recommendation by the Superintendent of Schools. In formulating these recommendations, the Superintendent relies upon responsible participation by two groups which together constitute the Personnel Policies Committee, namely, the principals of all the schools in the school system and teacher representatives chosen by the local teachers' association.

Approved practice for teachers contemplating in-service courses of training or self-directed projects for which they desire salary increments, is to file an 'application for approval of study which, when approved by the Board of Education, furnishes teachers with *assured advance knowledge* that the proposed courses, when completed, will be recognized for increment in the teacher's salary during the year next ensuing, all such increments becoming a permanent increase in the teacher's salary.

Consideration of teachers for merit increments, in both of the situations set forth in the third paragraph above, are a result of periodic review and consideration by the Personnel Policies Committee. Teachers do not apply for such increments. In considering teachers for merit increments resulting in advancement to the 'master teacher' status, annual consideration is given to every teacher who has attained to the maximum automatic salary provided for in the schedule, thus insuring that no teacher otherwise eligible for consideration who has been passed over previously shall fail to receive annual consideration in the light of possible new evidence. Such increments, resulting from extraordinarily valuable contributions to the school, when the teacher has not yet attained to the maximum automatic salary provided for by the schedule, are usually given after consideration of nominations received by the Personnel Policies Committee, either from its own members or from other members of the staff.

To enable teachers, in certain cases, to pursue in-service courses under circumstances wherein they are unable to defray personally the costs of tuition and fees for such courses, the Board of Education may pay such tuition and fees costs, and upon completion of the course(s), withhold the increment otherwise due to the teacher until such time as the accrued withholding has equalled the amount expended by the Board on his behalf.

APPENDIX III

A. HEAD TEACHERS' SALARIES IN ENGLAND AND WALES

Head teachers in England and Wales receive :

- (i) the basic salary and allowances, like any teacher,
- (ii) a head teacher's allowances, calculated on what is called the 'unit total' of the school.

The unit total is arrived at by counting :

- 1 for each child within compulsory school age, i.e., upto age 15.
- 2 for each child aged 15.
- 4 for each child aged 16.
- 6 for each child aged 17.
- 10 for each child aged 18.

The unit total may fall into any one of 23 groups (O to XXII) according to the size of the school.

Example : Non-graduate man, two-year trained, with 10 years' experience, head of a grade II school, gets (present scales)

$$£415 \text{ (basic)} + £180 \text{ (10 years)} + £110 \text{ (H. T.)} = £705$$

B. HEAD TEACHERS' SALARIES IN THE UNITED STATES

In the United States, many studies have been conducted in an effort to derive a satisfactory formula for determining suitable schedules of pay for head teachers. These studies vary greatly in the details of the formulæ developed, and practice also varies greatly. Certain common denominators may be discerned, however, in practically all such studies and in practices developed for such studies.

The most significant of these common denominators or principles may be listed as follows :

1. The salary of a head teacher should be at least as high as that of any other member of the professional staff of a school, and the maximum should be substantially higher than that of any other post in the school.

2. Increments in the salary of the head teacher should be provided for in the schedule. Such increments (i) should be greater than the increments provided for teachers, (ii) should not require that the head teacher meet specified types of in-service training or improvement,—that is, specified courses, etc.
 3. The base salary, amount of the increment and maximum salary should bear a reasoned relationship to the salary schedules of the other professional personnel of the school.
 4. The base salary and maximum salary should bear a graded relationship to the enrolment of the school and the number(s) of professional and other personnel over which the head teacher has supervisory responsibility.
 5. The maximum salary should be possible of attainment by the head teacher within a normal span of 10 to 15 years of continuous service and, in any event, not less than 5 years prior to his earliest potential date of eligibility for service retirement.
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APPENDIX IV

ORGANIZATION OF THE SCARSDALE HIGH SCHOOL STAFF FOR RESPONSIBLE PARTICIPATION IN ADMINISTRATION

In Scarsdale, a public high school with 1400 pupils and 85 members of the staff, certain principles or premises have been co-operatively developed over the years. The most significant of these, as they relate specifically to staff participation and responsibility, may be set forth briefly, as follows :—

1. No aspect of the programme and functions of a school are without interest to each member of the staff ; similarly, every member of the staff is affected by every phase of the school's programme and its functioning.
2. Since all members of the staff are both interested in and affected by phases of the school's programme and its functioning, every reasonable effort should be made to gear the thinking and contributions of all members of the staff on matters affecting the programme and, therefore, themselves as a part of the school and as individuals.
3. While specified individuals may (and will) have varying degrees of responsibility for the proper discharge of such functions as instruction, guidance, supervision, administration and so on, none of these functions should be regarded as the exclusive province of any single individual or even of any small group of individuals. They belong to the corporate body, so to speak. *The Administration* should not be thought of as a person (or persons), nor as a title or office, but as a function.
4. Within the limits of orderly procedure and effectiveness opportunities should be given to all members of the staff to participate in the responsible determination of policies, programme and procedures. This does not mean that every person can "get into the act" at all times, of course, but it does not mean that all hands should be afforded the opportunity to do so, under appropriate procedures, and in due course of time.

In the Scarsdale High School, the foregoing principles were sought to be implemented by the following organizational provisions.

1. **The Cabinet**—composed of the principal, deans, and heads of departments, meeting regularly under the chairmanship of the principal. The Cabinet functions in a threefold capacity :
 - (i) As an executive committee of the faculty—preparation of the agenda for faculty meetings ; formulation of proposals for submission to the faculty ; making of decisions, within agreed-upon principles, on behalf of the faculty.

- (ii) As a policy proposing body—taking initiative in formulating proposals involving possible changes in existing policies; initiating studies related to policy formulation; etc.
- (iii) As an advisory body—to the principal and/or to other responsible members of the professional staff who may bring 'problems' to it for consideration.

2. **The Principal's Advisory Council**—composed of seven members of the faculty (other than heads of departments), *elected* by the faculty and serving for two-year terms, one half (four and three) of the members being freshly elected each year. The functions of this group are :

- (i) To bring to the attention of the principal matters concerning the operation of the school which, in its opinion, merit review, attention or action—matters arising within the experience of the members themselves or brought to their attention by any members of the faculty.
- (ii) Giving the principal advice on matters brought to the group by him or arising out of discussions occurring within the group.

Note : This group has only advisory functions and possesses no administrative or executive or decision-making powers. Immediate and full minutes of its meetings are mimeographed and distributed to all members of the staff.

3. **Standing and Special Committees of the Faculty**—all created by faculty action and *appointed by the principal with the approval of the faculty*. Such committees are responsible to the faculty, not the principal, and all reports of such committees are made to the faculty. The principal is an ex-officio member of all standing and regular committees of the faculty.

Ordinarily the faculty provides for the following standing committees :

- (i) Committee on Faculty Fund & Faculty Welfare
- (ii) Committee on Curriculum
- (iii) Committee on Activities (Co-curricular)
- (iv) Committee on Eligibility
- (v) Committee on School Improvement

Typical examples of special committees (each having a definitely designated function) within recent years, would be :

- (i) Committee on the Reorganization of the Lunch Programme
- (ii) Committee on the Establishment of a Snack Bar,

- (iii) Committee on Student Evaluation.
- (iv) Committee on Safety Education.
- (v) Committee on School Participation in Community Life.
- (vi) Committee on Planning of Staff Meetings.
- (vii) Committee on School Calendar.

Membership on standing committees is for a period of two years with the possibility of appointment for a second two-year period; membership on special committees is for the period of the work of the committee—that is, until the committee has made its report to the faculty and been 'discharged'.

4. **Departments**—composed of all members of the staff assigned to each of the instructional departments. The organized departments existing in the school (as of 1952-1953) were as follows: English, Latin, Modern Languages, Mathematics, Science, Social Studies, Business Education, Arts and Crafts, Music, Speech and Dramatics, Library, Health and Physical Education, Home Economics, Guidance and Child Study.

The Departments meet regularly under the chairmanship of the Head of the Department. Their functions are numerous, the principal among them being as follows:—

- (i) to develop improved methods of instruction;
- (ii) to select and recommend text-books and materials;
- (iii) to recommend revision of courses of study, addition of new courses, merging of old courses, elimination of courses;
- (iv) to establish and maintain standards of instruction;
- (v) to develop and improve methods of examination and evaluation;
- (vi) to make recommendations to the principal and/or the faculty for studies, changes in policy, etc.
- (vii) in general, to be responsible for all matters directly related to instruction and related activities within the areas of the approved curriculum entrusted to them;
- (viii) *Important*—to participate in the interviewing and selection of new teachers.

5. **Informal (but Important) Structural Groups.** These groups, while not formally structured, frequently develop out of the daily operation and needs of the school. They may or may not find eventual place in the formal organization. Examples are: (i) the Publications Group, composed of faculty advisers of the four school publications, (ii) the Athletics Group, composed of all members of the faculty who have interscholastic team responsibilities, (iii) the Student Finance Group, composed of faculty advisers of activities which either produce or expend substantial sums of money, (iv) the Student Government (G. O.) Group, composed of the faculty advisers to the Junior and Senior High School G. O. Council and its various committees.

APPENDIX V

FUTURE TEACHERS OF AMERICA

The Future Teachers of America (in short, FTA) movement grew out of the Horace Mann Centennial in 1937 and has been developed by the staff of *The Journal of the National Education Association*.

The purposes of the FTA movement are :—

(i) to develop among young people, preparing to be teachers, an organization which will be an integral part of state and national education associations ;

(ii) to acquaint teachers in training with the history, ethics and programme of the organized teaching profession ;

(iii) to give teachers in training practical experience in working together in a democratic way on the problems of the profession and the community ;

(iv) to interest the best young men and women in education as a life-long career ;

(v) to encourage careful selection of persons admitted to schools which prepare teachers, with emphasis on both character and scholarship ;

(vi) to seek ,through the dissemination of information and through higher standards of preparation, to bring teacher supply and demand into a reasonable balance.

It can be seen from the above that the main principles underlying such an organization are :—

(i) that the future of mankind is in the hands of the youth of to-day and, therefore, it is very necessary to offer young people activities through which they can improve themselves and look forward to useful careers in that greatest of all occupations—teaching; and

(ii) that loyalty to the profession as a whole and to the nation as a whole can best be ensured through an organization such as this which cuts across local and state lines and serves as the unifying link.

Structure. It is believed that the FTA programme should enable the earlier awakening of the individual, who plans to be a teacher, to the possibilities of his own life, and help to better develop character qualities essential to the teacher by attaching importance to them early in the student's life,

The programme, therefore, makes it possible for the young person who, upon entering high school, forms his purpose to be a teacher to have four years of preliminary preparation through FTA Clubs, plus four years of definite training during college years through FTA 'Chapters' for professional leadership.

The distinctive feature about these FTA organizations, both at the high school and the college levels, that distinguishes them from other clubs and associations is that the emphasis is decidedly practical-aiming at a training for "democratic co-operative action," at improvement of individual and community life. Listed in the programme of activities for the high school clubs are, for instance, such items as :—

- (i) improving assembly programmes;
- (ii) helping beautify school campus;
- (iii) sponsoring National Citizenship Day;
- (iv) sponsoring a course in the practice of parliamentary law;
- (v) teaching in Sunday school;
- (vi) helping develop a recreation programme for children in the community.
- (vii) music—both to help develop individual talent and for leading in community singing.

The FTA serves the twofold objective of inspiring the best among the young to take to the profession and of bringing about a greater unity and stability within the profession itself.

APPENDIX VI

**THE HARVARD TWENTY-NINE COLLEGE
CO-OPERATIVE PLAN**

In the late autumn of 1951 representatives of twenty-one liberal arts colleges in the north-eastern States met at Harvard to discuss the critical shortage of able persons currently entering the field of public education. The natural community of interest which was almost immediately apparent in the group suggested the possibility of co-operative action.

It was agreed that:

1. A disproportionately low number of well-qualified graduates of liberal arts colleges choose careers in education.
2. Although students and faculty members may justifiably be sceptical of many existing courses in education, the fields of study underlying the educational process demand serious and rigorous analysis.
3. The traditional antagonisms between liberal and professional educators could be eased if more effective means of communication were established.
4. Committed by definition to the primary task of providing a broad general education, many liberal arts colleges lack the facilities and the resources necessary for adequate professional training.
5. Graduate schools of education have been in an unfavourable competitive situation because they have lacked scholarship funds comparable to those available to other graduate faculties.

The twenty-one college group then presented a plan to the Ford Fund for the Advancement of Education. Each college agreed to take appropriate action, according to the individual climate of particular institutions, to stimulate interest in teaching. Able students thus encouraged to consider careers in education might then be recommended for admission to fifth year training programmes at the Harvard Graduate School of Education. Students not able to finance an additional year of study would be granted scholarships provided by the Fund ranging in amounts up to \$ 1,500. By early 1952 eight additional colleges had joined the group and the Twenty-nine College Co-operative Programme was established.

In practice the Co-operative Programme has usually meant that a Teacher Education Committee, made up of representatives from the humanities, natural sciences, social sciences, and education (if a department of education exists) has assumed responsibility for stimulating interest in teaching and recommending students to Harvard. Committees have held all-college conferences on education, distributed myriad quantities of literature, posted announcements, evaluated the intellectual

capacity and personal fitness of fifth year applicants, and, most important, attempted to create an atmosphere within the college sympathetic to public education. Of course, the effectiveness of particular committees has varied considerably, but, in general, the response has been heartening.

Representatives of the twenty-nine colleges have, from time to time, met in Cambridge to discuss common problems, and, particularly, means of effecting greater integration between undergraduate and graduate study. A recent conference attempted to analyze the crucial shortage of competent teachers of science and mathematics and to find ways of encouraging able young people to plan careers in these fields. Policy decisions involving the co-operative programme are made during these periodic conferences.

APPENDIX VII

APPRENTICESHIP TRAINING IN GREAT BRITAIN

More than a hundred trades and sections of industry in Great Britain have bound themselves by national agreement to ensure that all their young recruits who enter on an apprenticeship or learnership basis shall receive, during part at least of the period of their apprenticeship or learnership, systematic and regular part-time education and training during their hours of employment. No deduction from pay is made, nor are rates of pay lowered on this account.

The most usual agreement is that this education and training shall be for a period of three years from the beginning of the apprenticeship, that is, from about age $15\frac{1}{2}$ or $16\frac{1}{2}$ to $19\frac{1}{2}$. The most usual time allotment for such education and training (other than on-the-job training in the course of productive work) is one day a week for fifty weeks in the year.

There are four principal ways in which this education and training is carried out :—

(i) (By far the most common). The firm sends its apprentices to a technical college one day (or two half days a week). Some firms require that apprentices attend technical college on one or two evenings a week as well. A few firms prefer the 'sandwich' system, that is, apprentices go for a week, fortnight, month, or longer at a time to a technical college and then spend a corresponding period in the works.

In all the above cases the local education authority bears the cost of tuition, and the firm the loss of immediate profit due to the absence of their apprentices from the works.

(ii) Some firms set up apprentice bays in their works. In these their apprentices are taught the trade practices mastery of which is necessary for the employment skills required in the industry. If, as is usual, the firm makes use of several trades (e. g., turner, fitter, pattern maker, carpenter), apprentices will during their earlier year be given a chance to try their hands at each before making a final choice. In this case the total expense is borne by the firm.

(iii) As (ii), but in addition apprentices are sent also to a technical college for the equivalent (usually) of one day a week. The technical college's function is to give them instruction in the theoretical knowledge necessary for an understanding of their trades. Almost invariably it gives also workshop practice.

(iv) A few firms have set up works schools of their own, in which their apprentices receive both theoretical and practical training. In such cases the firms will either (a) recruit all their own teachers and instructors, and equip the schools themselves, or (b) obtain from the

L. E. A. teachers of theoretical subjects and equipment for these subjects, and provide themselves instructors and equipment for trade practice training.

In the latter case the cost of running the school appears to be fairly evenly divided between the firm and the L. E. A.

There are many minor variations in details of these patterns. In Scotland, and in a few instances in England, firms take boys into their works before the age of apprenticeship, and give them a pre-apprenticeship course, which may last as long as one year.

It should be added that many firms exceed the periods of training given above, especially by extending it beyond the age of 18.

In all the procedures outlined above there may be included an element of general education. The practice of including such an element is on the increase, particular attention being paid to English, civics, and physical education.

Considerable numbers of young employees recruited on a non-apprenticeship basis are given opportunities comparable with the above. In their case the element of general education bulks largely. Government departments are among the employers who release their young employees for such part-time education.

APPENDIX VIII

A. HOW LOCAL AUTONOMY WORKS IN THE UNITED STATES

In the United States, as in India, the responsibility for and control of education are vested in the states. In the United States this is by virtue of the fact that in the Constitution those powers not allocated to the Federal Government are reserved to the states, or to the people. It is the reserved powers clause that gives to the states responsibility for and control over education.

The states, proceeding from this power, have very seldom chosen to operate schools directly, but, on the contrary, have created separate school districts (for the most part) or have assigned to general, local, or municipal governments by specified law the duties of providing and managing free public schools, now through the secondary school and even at times beyond, as in the junior college, for example, or indeed as in the municipal university. The school district, or the general local government, as the case may be, is clearly a *state agency of local (only) jurisdiction*. It should be noted that the states could, if they wished, directly establish (and operate schools without the establishment of local school districts, or, having created those districts, could, if the state legislature wished to do so, abolish them, or greatly change their powers.

The developed and still developing status of the school district is characterized by its assigned role as the locus of educational planning, operation and financing of education. Here has come to lie local initiative for education—a highly prized characteristic of American education, and probably what has given it its intense democratic nature as well as kept schools close to the people. Undoubtedly, this development has been responsible for the growth and the adaptability of the American school as the home of educational opportunity. It might be well to enumerate briefly certain major and developed characteristics of the school districts:

(i) In the great majority of states, the local school district, often referred to as the local school system, is a separate governmental unit for education—separate, indeed, from general local government. To a great extent, also, the school district is fiscally independent, having free although somewhat limited local taxing power, especially for taxation on property. An exception to this complete status of fiscal independence is to be found in many of our larger cities, although even here there is considerable extension of separation. There are other variations and exceptions in degree not needing mention here.

(ii) The powers of school districts, whether independent of or dependent upon general local government, are set by the state by law. Provision is made, practically universally, for a Board of Education, as head of the local school system. Often other names are used for this body, but the practice is the same. The Board of Education is the educational authority at the local level. Most commonly the Board is

elected by the people of the local district. Board membership is not large, running generally from 3 to 9. It seems safe to say that most American students of education regard the long-term development of the Board of Education as one of the outstanding responsible control bodies in local government in the United States.

(iii) The Board has been given broad powers and latitude within its school district. More specifically, however, the Board can do only what the law of the state says it can do, or what may be inferred from the law that it can do. Courts have broadly interpreted the powers of Boards of Education. The Board, being a state agency, though of local jurisdiction only, is responsible to the state. Yet in a real and practical sense the Board is responsible to the people of the school district and derives in varying degree its authority from the district. In great numbers of cases the Board itself has fiscal responsibility and independence. In many other cases, especially in rural areas and the smallest districts, the budget for schools and likewise the determination of the amount of local taxation are set by the voters of the district, assembled in annual meeting, an institution not unlike the old New England "Town Meeting." Here, then, this meeting is the local legislative body for those functions assigned to it, especially appropriation of moneys. Even here the Board is generally upheld in the right to incur liabilities for necessary school purposes, within the limits of reasonableness.

In large school districts, such as cities, voters' meetings would naturally run into such size and become so unwieldy that they are not the practice. In these cases, the Board operates without the benefit of this extended reliance upon direct official access to the people. The Board is either granted a fiscal independence, or becomes fiscally, and in varying degree, by stages, dependent upon some general municipal authority such as the city council. Commonly, however, matters such as votes on bond issues, especially for school buildings, or in cases of the extension of a tax limit otherwise binding on the school district by virtue of state law, go to the people for direct ballot.

(iv) The local district, it should be said, is generally recipient directly of the amount of state financial aid for schools, and commonly of any other local non-tax revenue accruing to it, in addition, of course, to its own local tax revenues.

(v) By its own action the Board of Education almost universally appoints its own chief administrative officer known as the Superintendent of Schools. In rural areas it is common for several small school systems—each too small to be able to retain a well qualified superintendent alone—to join together by state plan in the joint retention of a superintendent. Teachers, principals, and other staff of the school system receive their formal election from the Board. Practices vary, but usually either in practice or by law the Board elects only upon nomination of the Superintendent of Schools. The Superintendent is the professional officer of general administrative function in the school district. The evolution of his position in American education as a

true professional leader as well as executive of the Board forms a chapter in United States educational history of great meaning to local autonomy.

(vi) Most Boards of Education adopt and publish statements of Policy and Rules and Regulations, governing in a broad way the operation of schools. These would include such matters as the salary schedule, programmes of study, the adoption of text-books, etc. It should be said, however, that the general and favoured practice is for these to represent broad policies, not petty details, and for them to come before the Board through the Superintendent, after they have gone through the full development process of staff participation.

(vii) The Board of Education, through its Secretary, keeps official minutes of all transactions. Board meetings are usually held by regular schedule and seldom less frequently than monthly. Board meetings are generally open to the public and to the press.

(viii) Board and Superintendent relations are most commonly characterized by informal cordiality, trust, and good relations. Often, and it can be said increasingly, many voluntary committees of both citizens and teaching staff are to be found working by Board and Superintendent enlistment on a great variety of local school problems, resulting in recommendations of policy and practice. In such capacity, these committees are active at what may be called the development stage of the policy process. Similar activities go on around individual schools as units. The scope of these activities extends throughout the gamut of the problems of local school systems. They include problems of the school programme, school buildings, grading systems, salary schedules, budgets, and the like. Increasingly special consultant resources are procured to assist in the activities. In these matters also there is a high degree of co-operation on the part of the State Department of Education staff as well as those of universities and teachers' colleges.

Thus one may get some idea of local autonomy as it has developed, as it has become much the force in the growth of American schools, and as it has been without doubt the greatest factor in broadening and deepening the understanding of public education on the part of the people—all the people—to whom the schools belong.

B. THE ENGLISH LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITY

The local authority for education in England and Wales is the elected Council of an administrative County or of a County Borough.* It is an all-purposes authority; that is, it has authority for all purposes of local government, and not for education only.

*A city or town of 50,000 or more inhabitants which has been granted a charter constituting it a County Borough.

There are 146 Local Education Authorities (L. E. A.'s) in England and Wales. There are

62 County Councils

83 County Borough Councils

1 Joint Board representative of two Councils

In respect of education the statutory powers of all L. E. A.'s are identical.

L. E. A.'s have statutory power to raise loans and levy rates (i. e. local taxes). The amount and conditions of a loan have to be approved by the British Treasury.

The areas and populations of the L. E. A.'s vary greatly—the latter more than the former. Populations range from the 4,000,000 of the London County Council down to fewer than 50,000 in some of the counties.

The L. E. A. exercises its educational functions largely through its Education Committee, which by law it must appoint. It may delegate to its Education Committee all its powers except the power to raise loans and levy rates.

At least a majority on the Council's Education Committee must be representatives of the Council. In practice this means members of the Council. In addition, there must be added to the Committee as co-opted members persons (including some women) having experience in or detailed knowledge of education. These co-opted members have full voting rights.

Most of the Education Committee's work is done in sub-committees, e.g., Primary Education Sub-Committee, Secondary Education Sub-Committee, Finance and General Purposes Sub-Committee. The normal procedure is for a matter to be referred by the Education Committee to the appropriate Sub-Committee, which will present proposals or recommendations to the meeting of the Education Committee. The presentation of such proposals or recommendations is invariably done by the Chairman of the Sub-Committee, who, whatever his (or her) personal opinion about them, will present the arguments in favour of the decision arrived at by the Sub-Committee.

Every L.E.A. has a salaried staff which will vary in size according to the size, population, and complexity of the Authority's area. Members of this staff are members of the Local Government Service, not of the British Civil Service. They are appointed, paid, and dismissed by the local authority.

The only statutory requirement about staff is that the local authority must appoint a Chief Education Officer. The Minister of Education must see the list of persons the Authority proposes to consider for this

appointment, and has the right to veto the appointment of anyone he (or she) considers unsuitable.

The L.E.A. annually estimates its expenditure for the forthcoming year (April 1 to March 31). The work of collecting detailed estimates from schools and other educational institutions is done by the Chief Education Officer and his staff. Estimates are considered first by the appropriate Sub-Committees, then by the Education Committee, then by the Finance Committee of the Council, and finally by the Council. They are then submitted for approval to the Minister of Education.

The Minister of Education pays grant on all expenditure by the L.E.A. which it recognizes as eligible for grant. There is a main grant, which covers all normal services except teacher training colleges, school meals, and the school health services. Over the country the main grant aggregates about 60%, but the formula includes an equalization factor which makes the grant to individual authorities range from about 30% to over 70%.

The training college grant varies according to the number of training colleges (if any) in an Authority's area. There is a national pooling of expenditure on this account.

The school meals service attracts a very high rate of grants—up to 90%—from the Minister of Education.

The school health service expenditure is borne on the Ministry of Health vote.

APPENDIX IX

Composition of the International Secondary
Education Project Team

1. Dr. Edward A. Pires,
Vice-Principal, Central Institute of Education,
Delhi, India.

M.A., University of Bombay, 1933 ; Ph. D., University of Bombay, 1937 ; Studied at the University of London, Institute of Education : Teacher's Diploma, University of London, 1938 ; M.A. in Education, University of London, 1941.

2. Mr. Harold C. Dent,
Educational Correspondent,
The Times, London.
England.

B.A. (Hons.), London University, 1922 ; Editor, *Times Educational Supplement*.

3. Mr. K. Kuruvila Jacob,
Headmaster, Christian College School,
Chetput, Madras, India.

B.A., Madras University, 1926 ; Diploma in Education, Leeds University, 1930 ; M.A. in Education, Leeds University, 1931 ; Post-graduate Studies, Institute of Education, London University, 1939.

4. Dr. Lester W. Nelson,
Fund for the Advancement of Education,
New York, U. S. A.

Graduate, West Nottingham (Pa.) Township High School, 1912 ; West Chester (Pa.) Normal School, 1915 ; Attended Pennsylvania State College, 1915-16 ; B. S. in Ed., University of Pennsylvania, 1924 ; LL.D. (Honorary), University of Pennsylvania, 1952 ; L.H.D. (Honorary), Colgate University, 1952 ; L.H.D. (Honorary), Colby College, 1952.

5. Miss Sulabaha Panandikar,
Principal, Training College,
Bombay, India.

M.A., University of Bombay, 1927 ; M. Litt., University of Cambridge, 1930 ; Teacher's Diploma, University of London, 1931.

6. Mr. Suresh Chandra Rajkhowa,
Inspector of Schools,
Jorhat, Assam, India.

M.A., University of Calcutta, 1937 ; Teacher's Diploma, Institute of Education, University of London, 1947 ; M.A. in Education, University of London, 1948.

7. Dr. Alfred D. Simpson,
Professor of Education,
Harvard University, U.S.A.

A.B., Syracuse University, 1913 ; Ph. D., 1941 ; A.M., Yale, 1923 ; Ph. D., Columbia, 1927 ; A.M. (Honorary), Harvard, 1942.

8. Dr. Laurin Zilliacus,
Sandudsgatan 6B,
Helsingfors, Finland.

Higher Education : Cornell University, Massachusetts Institute of Technology; B.Sc., (Chem. Eng.) Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1916 ; LL.D., Melbourne University, Australia, 1936.
